

THE CLEARING HOUSE

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senior-high-school people

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EDITORIAL

VACATION

Once upon a time a schoolmaster led a happy life, because, though he had to work for ten months, during the other two months he could loaf and invite his soul. But now those happy days are past. Now vacation has become a time when, without a pay check, the teacher, instead of being the boss, becomes a pupil. In other words, he goes to summer school, which may be good for his soul and for his pupils, but. . . . Anyhow, we wonder if all of the summer activity of teachers colleges and departments of education is to be counted as clear gain.

Is it better for the children to have teachers full of fresh facts and theories or teachers rested by basking all summer in the actinic rays of the sun, Nature's old nurse? Are twelve months of books better for teachers than ten months of books plus two months of fun?

A certain noted educator used to say that he wanted to be a model for nine months and a warning for three. But he was a college professor and hence did not have to go to summer school. Sir Walter Scott used to rise at four o'clock in the morning and work until eleven, his object in getting up so early being to earn an opportunity to be a gentleman for the rest of the day. On the same principle it is probably good for teachers to have an opportunity to be human beings for at least two months of the year.

Therefore, Mr. Chairman, I move that we have a new constitutional amendment, worded as follows:

Amendment XX

It shall be unlawful for any teacher to go to summer school oftener than every three years, the penalty for violation thereof being exile to Europe for at least two months for each offense. Congress shall have power by appropriate legislation to enforce this amendment if it can.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is a pest which should be abated. We respectfully suggest that those who fill them out be authorized to charge ten dollars an hour for this service.

THE PRESENT SITUATION

Farewell to all the store
We saved against the date
When we could work no more—
The wolf is at the gate.

My hon has not a dress,
A pound of beef, or bone.
There is nothing left, I guess,
But taxes, debts, and Stone.

The foregoing elegant bit of versification was recited to me the other day by one of our Detroit teachers who was endeavoring to adapt Rudyard Kipling's *For All We Have and Are* to his present financial and psychological difficulties. The "Stone" alluded to in the last line is an eminent banker who has been endeavoring to balance the city budget.

The situation in which most of us find ourselves reminds me of the poem in which Virgil says:

I made these verses but another has reaped the benefit.

Thus you, O flocks, bear wool, but not for yourselves.

Thus you, O bees, distill honey from the flowers, but not for yourselves.

Thus you, O birds, build nests, but not for yourselves.

Even so, most of us have worked hard and saved our money that we might enrich certain predatory and parasitic parties who make their living by persuading unpractical people like school teachers to invest their resources in worthless enterprises. For this situation we have nobody under the sun to blame but ourselves. Our losses are due, in the first place, to our greed, and, in the second place, to our stupidity.

This sage reflection, however, is of no particular practical value at the present time. It will not restore spilt milk. Perhaps we can comfort ourselves with the reflection that we are all in the same boat. Misery loves company, but company does not love misery. I therefore suggest that we dance and sing. Mr. John Heywood, if I remember correctly, in one of his poems emits a sentiment which has wide application today:

The loss of wealth is loss of dirt;
As sages in all times assert,
The happy man's without a shirt.

Anyhow, we have more to be thankful for than the French, Germans, Italians, etc. We have baseball, plumbing, buckwheat cakes, maple syrup, green corn, pie, and a set of men in public life whose loss or removal would eclipse the gayety of nations in a fashion to make the gloom caused by the death of David Garrick sink into insignificance.

Therefore I say: Let us keep our courage, and let us solemnly and highly resolve that, if we have been fools, we will be fooled no more. Let us find solace in the rich memories of the past, in great books, in splendid music, and in the hope, which surely will be realized, of better times to come.

E. L. M.

In no other way has "educational research" been so thoroughly discredited as in its use to prove foregone conclusions by means of replies to questionnaires sent to persons interested in establishing the status of the educational instrument under "investigation." Thus Latin teachers, conservative politicians, and liberal-arts-college graduates have been asked for opinions regarding the value of Latin instruction!

The Clearing House Schedule of Numbers for Vol. VI 1931-1932

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EDWIN MILLER, *Chairman*

EDITORIAL

Pamphlet No. 28 recently published by the Federal Office of Education, entitled "A Study of the Educational Value of Military Instruction in Universities and Colleges," is a most unfortunate example of such a misuse of "scientific techniques." It explains a research undertaken by an "investigator," Major R. C. Bishop, who is obviously interested in reaching a positive conclusion in favor of such military instruction, by means of a questionnaire sent to 16,416 graduates of the 1920 to 1930 classes, inclusive, of the fifty-four institutions selected "from those which offer or require training in the Reserve Officers Training Corps."

Having thus chosen so biased a group of witnesses, all of whom have potential vested interests in military training, both as an element of self-esteem and as actual official rank in summer encampments or in a "next war," the "research" makes use of all of the solemn hocus-pocus of "scientific research." Random sampling, distributions, analyses, tabulations, summaries—and *sponsorship by the United States Commissioner of Education!* Nothing is lacking to establish the respectability of such nonsense.

By such an investigation the value of astrology, magic, spiritualism, or Anglo-Saxon ancestry could be "established." But one hopes that the office of the Commissioner of Education will not be exploited to lend support to such establishments.

This editorial is not written to attack military training or Latin or astrology or any other institution; on such matters honest persons may disagree. Its purpose is, first, to protest the use of scientific techniques to establish conclusions through partial investigations by means of biased witnesses and,

second, to demand that the Federal Office of Education not be exploited by special interests. Such sponsorship discredits all other research sponsored by the Federal Office.

Evidence of "citizenship values" found by this "investigation" in military training given in connection with the Reserve Officers' Training Corps is overwhelming (pages 14-21). But page 91 of the manual on Training for Citizenship used in government military schools and in citizenship courses in R.O.T.C. work damns democracy in no uncertain terms, as follows:

Democracy

A government of the masses

Authority derived through mass meeting or any other form of direct expression

Results in mobocracy

Attitude towards property is communistic—negating property rights

Attitude towards law is that the will of the majority shall regulate, whether it be based upon deliberation or governed by passion, prejudice, and impulse, without restraint or regard to consequences

Results in demagogism, license, agitation, discontent, anarchy.¹

All of these strictures on democracy may be true. But one must define "citizenship" in terms of prewar Prussia or Czarist Russia if one is to call it "*citizenship* training"! No matter what are the opinions of the majority of those who have undergone military training—they were found to support the *status quo* of their respective institutions—scientific research that proves the desirability of using public taxes of a democracy to support propaganda to undermine democracy is absurd and vicious!

P. W. L. C.

¹ Quoted from H. E. Barnes's column in the *New York World Telegram*, "The Liberal Viewpoint."

UNMITIGATED NUISANCES: COMMENCEMENTS AND PAGEANTS

WILLIAM McANDREW

EDITOR'S NOTE: THE CLEARING HOUSE is delighted to add William McAndrew to its list of contributors. If Edwin Miller, the chairman of this number, had seen this article in manuscript he might have "edited" it slightly—we are glad he didn't see it. Are you of any "use to these sad times"?

F. E. L.

AN UNCONVERTED friend writes me he has been asked to furnish for THE CLEARING HOUSE an essay on pageants and commencements. In his personal opinion they are both unmitigated nuisances. So is he, for wishing upon me a task he ought to do himself, the miscreant. I can think of no more brilliant, scintillating, picturesque master of vivid English and mordant wit amongst living schoolmen than he. His usual method of address is to pull down the whole elaborate building of current education into a pile of rubbish and then, like a master builder, construct from the very fragments of that ruin a palace so grand, so beautiful as to send us away inspired to do our daily tasks with the enthusiasm of masters. I love him, the old iconoclast. He hates to be honored and praised. I withhold his name. But if your curiosity keeps you awake I will name him to you privately on your promise that you will not tell him I told you.

A nuisance, quotha, What is a nuisance? *Nuisance* in old English, from French *nuire*, Latin *nocere*, to hurt. Nuisance, a hurtful, troublesome annoying thing, a vexation, a worry, a bother, a bore.

What makes commencement into this? Why is a pageant so considered? Can you mitigate them?

You have your own way of mitigating nuisances. There is the good old method of the Stoics: that of using untoward circumstances as occasions for developing your patience and endurance.

There is the other practice of Epicurus: to find in the annoying event its elements of pleasure and to concentrate on them until the enjoyment of them pushes irritation, dislike, and weariness out of sight.

Commencement is a school tradition saddled rather firmly upon us. Pageants invade us, brought by the younger teachers who have contracted the infection from training schools in which the wild and glad moderns have the nerve to use, in teaching these things, the time and energy paid for by public taxes.

The nuisance of them, maybe, is due to failure in making pageant and commencement do their parts as contributors to the tremendously large purpose of the school.

I cannot remember a time when there were so many hazy notions as to what this purpose is. At educational conventions there are as many theories expounded as there are speakers. The hangover of the mental-discipline doctrine, although none of the researchers have been able to discover its validity, is, it seems to me, due to the fact that we are still making algebra, geometry, Latin, and some similarly unreal studies important parts of school experience. We must claim either that they discipline the mind so that it can be used upon things that really matter, or that they are a mark of the educated man. The first claim has now no basis that scientific search has discovered. The second defense is of an aim at class superiority and selfishness utterly at variance with the spirit of the document which broke the bands holding to the old aristocratic régime of 1775.

THE SELFISHNESS OF THE CHILD-CENTERED SCHOOL

Into the prerevolutionary education—an aim of scholarship and culture which guided us almost completely up to 1880—came the vocational invasion and the pleadings for art. Both urges are so tinged with the urge

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of individual benefit (as if school is still maintained chiefly for the boy and girl who attend it), that the prevailing atmosphere of present-day schools is selfish. The larger, more generous, really sublime conception of American public education as conceived by its founders can be infused into a school and made to flower in its commencements and ceremonials.

You cannot read very far into the formative period of this nation without uncovering a profound and noble intent to build a system of education on a new plan. It seems to have been in the mind of almost every thinking man at the start. Washington put it into his letters and speeches: Education is of primary importance as a means of training generations for intelligent and honest politics. Franklin, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, also a series of pamphlets by other statesmen, by jurists, by scholars (almost a score of noted ones) all outlined the course of education for a self-governing nation. They prescribed direct study and practice of government, law-making, economics, politics. Now, said these men of vision, we have combined for the purpose of more perfect union, justice, internal peace, common defense, general welfare, and the blessings of liberty, with accent on the blessings. We must take over education and make its main business the teaching of union, justice, peace, defense, welfare, and blessings of liberty. You remember that this idea was then so universal in the United States that the Congress put into its famous Ordinance of 1787 that schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged so as to preserve good government. With this intent the campaign was carried through which took from parents the cost of schooling their children—so much for each child—and made education a charge on everybody irrespective of how many children they had or whether they had any at all. The proponents of those free-school laws, which

now obtain everywhere, promised that your schools would not be run for the individual advantage of the children but for the general welfare. Give us these appropriations, they said, and we'll more than save the cost in reduced taxes for police, for courts, for jails, for money wasted and stolen by corrupt officials. On that promise you and I were made the agents of clean politics and honest government. Now, by any statistics you care to use, we have more crime, more police, more courts, more jails, more wasteful and grafting officials per capita than Canada, any British country, France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, or Czechoslovakia.

How do you account for it?

Prosperity. Natural resources. A realm to conquer. The West, oh, the West, oh, the land of the free, where the broad Mississippi rolls down to the sea; where a man is a man if he's willing to toil, and the humblest among us are kings of the soil. Everybody was too busy building a fortune. There was no time left to watch our government. Those were the 'rah-'rah days.

Gone!

No more frontier to occupy.

No more opportunities so rich that the waste of government can be borne.

A nation at the crossroads of want, hunger, distress, despair.

A constituency that used to leave us teachers alone to play along with a system of education on the child-centered idea, founded on aims set up by scholars, is now uncovering the American original project of public education for general welfare. These people are charging that our junior and senior high schools are club houses for the entertainment of youths in games, dances, dramatics, and music. The culture is for leisure, for the selfish satisfaction of the educated. The national problems which in a democracy must be settled by self-governing people trained to understand public questions, economics,

crime, government, justice, politics, general welfare have no public opinion capable of considering affairs of our communal living, nor have we been inspired by preparatory schooling to gird up our loins and serve our country in its time of need. Teachers are now commonly charged with being the most backward in this duty.

THE FOOL COMMENCEMENT

"In the day of adversity," said the reputed wisest of all men, "consider."

Consider the unmitigated nuisance of a commencement which parades a company of youth dressed in academic gewgaws or in ceremonial uniform designed to feed the desire for attention. Consider the absurdity of singing a class song, always an emphasis upon us, the graduates. It was an aggravation of the self-centering atmosphere of the whole ceremony. Consider the stupid assumption of importance given to the beribboned diplomas which are visual signs of the vicious system of marks and grades. Consider the tommyrot of reading the lists of honor students which feeds vanity more than it encourages effort to be of use. Consider the award of prizes, based on working for oneself and not for the community. Consider the overdrilled marching, rising, bowing, swinging a mortar board tassel from right to left or left to right. Consider the whole utterly insignificant event, a device for gratifying the pride of a few relatives, for the mere amusement or entertainment of others, for the advertisement of the school's shameful attention to inconsequential details, and for impressing young people with the idea that what they have done is important.

The majority of the members of my high-school class in 1882 despised the whole business. A few girls were for it. Freud would say this was due to an instinct of exhibitionism. I have graduated, with the traditional clap-trap, twenty-three groups since then

and seen thirty other schools do the same. The occasional discovery of contempt for the whole business shown by the sort of boy or girl who gives promise of public service puts me into the belief held by the man who wished this task of writing upon me. Commencement as commonly practised is an atavism, a throwback towards the babyhood of the race, an unmitigated nuisance. The principal, superintendent, or board member who promotes or sanctions it is not only failing to put the school on the legitimate track the makers of the tax laws promised it would follow, but he is holding education away from its destiny; he is dishonest, hypocritical, immoral, a shirker of duty, guilty of petty treason.

Who says so?

Two hundred and twenty-three clippings that have come to me within the past month quote Charles E. Hughes, Newton D. Baker, Alfred Smith, William H. Taft, Henry Wollman, Francis X. Bursch, Samuel Seabury, Theodore Roosevelt, Calvin Coolidge, Preston Slosson, Paul McNutt, Ruth Bryan Owen, Ann Brewington, Boyd Bode, James Russell, Arthur Dunn, Seba Eldridge, John Dewey, David Snedden, William Kilpatrick, William Bagley, David Jayne Hill, William Munro, and more than two hundred American respectables lamenting the civic failure of schools.

Noah Webster, in 1787, expressed the fear that the schoolmaster would not uphold the Revolution. These men say you haven't.

GRADUATION WITHOUT HYPOCRISY

Commencement is the subject set for me. How would this do for a junior or senior graduation?

The school can count upon an audience of citizens. It is an opportunity.

Let a speaker of the outgoing class remind his hearers that education, like every sort of service, requires periodic inspection to

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prevent hardening of its arteries. "Why, then, do we have public schools? Why are the people of this community—all of them, whoever earns a cent or spends it: factory girls, working men, merchants, garbage gatherers, people who do not even know our names—why are they forced to pay for our education? Is it a charity? Are we students in the same class as the people in the poor-house?"

"This is a matter not to be answered by my mere opinion or your guess. Your payment of the cost of our schooling is based upon a conception worked out by the founders of this nation. They said that for its safety, its improvement, its justice, its general welfare, all of you should pay to educate us."

Here the young citizen should establish this point by short, penetrative quotations from Tom Payne, Benjamin Franklin, Presidents Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, Governors Clinton, Sullivan, and Hughes, Benjamin Rush, Nathaniel Chipman, Noah and Daniel Webster, Thaddeus Stevens, Horace Mann—not too many. Others can be sprinkled into the program later to keep it warm.

The next speaker elaborates the question as to what sort and how much of the teaching of the school's course should be devoted to Jefferson's insistence that the school should study what the political doings of the community, State, and nation are, that are going on *now*, and should recite some of the efforts of individual teachers to inspire each member of the school to see that "his part of the world goes on right." (Jefferson's proposal.)

The next speaker, in place of the usual recount made by the class historian alluding to excursions, picnics, football contests, parties, dances, and selfish good times, must describe, as an experiment in general welfare, what his class has done for the community while it has been receiving educa-

tion at community cost. "I must ask you," he says, "to absolve me from the old tendency of the school to boast. I am not bragging. I am wishing we had done more. I am encouraging the others and myself to keep on doing what we have begun."

Another student speaker says, "It is the custom of many service organizations—restaurants, hotels, railways—to persuade patrons to criticize. From complaints and suggestions service is perfected. Now is the time for you, representatives of those who own the schools and for whose benefit, immediate and future, the schools are run, to let our teachers and the classes coming after us know what you think school should do for the community."

Then a few citizens, secured beforehand, rise from their seats and give briefly and pointedly what the town, the State, and nation need—pointed, concrete things. Not the old vapory abstractions. Others, not primed in advance, may butt in and say harsh words. All the better!

The boy or girl presiding officer, expecting trouble and, therefore, prepared to meet it, reminds them at the start that the program must have a time limit and that the calling down of a speaker is only to observe the constitutional purpose of general welfare.

Then follows a student speaker relating some of the fine things members of the class have promised to do for their country. This is to replace that wretched joke so often perpetrated under the name of class prophecy.

The awarder of the diplomas then reminds us that each document is a contract to the effect that, for value received, each recipient accepts the obligation of performing his active duties as a citizen; voting at the primaries, attending political meetings of the *two or more parties*, serving on committees "to scrutinize," as Washington said, "and, viewing officials with healthy suspicion, to

demand virtual patriotic service in the people's interest."

This is followed by the repetition of the civic oath, hands on hearts, contracts held aloft.

Interspersed in this program is refreshing music. Absent from it is all the nauseous self-conceit, school glorification, prize getting, honorable mention, grades, everything out of tune with the large and generous idea of public service, civic devotion, patriotism.

Such a commencement is to remind children and grown-ups why schools were made a public charge.

IMMORAL PAGEANTS

Pageantry?

Why not?

Shall we leave music, color, mass-rhythm, pomp, and ceremony to war time or to promoters of shows for mere money-making?

Let the school have one grand triumph a year. Let it, too, be full of the flavor of the nation's destiny. Take a great theme, worth the thought and time and labor. I know a large high school that fritters away golden hours preparing "The Follies of 1932."

Shame!

Follies. The very word is suggestive: lewd women, vulgar jokes, sensuous dances, frivolity, frippery, trash, levity, and that, too, in these times in a nation that has poured out its thousands into its schools, which have been unable to raise our citizenry to a mentality higher than that which belongs to a thirteen-year-old. "Follies," "Scandals," burlesques, movies, plays, radio—most of the influences outside of school are serving to keep the public mind at that thirteen-year-old level. If you are introducing these vaudeville stunts into the public school, you are, indeed, an unmitigated nuisance.

What shall you do?

Get your theme.

Get it by an assembly conference.

Ask your school. "On what theme shall we build this year's pageant?"

Let your student recorder set down every answer, poor as it is.

Don't adversely criticize a one. If you do, you discourage many a valuable tip.

Here are some of the themes Eleanor Nightingale received from her high-schoolers: These hard times. Corrupt politics. Our heritage from George Washington. Knowledge is power. The triumph of education. The duty of the American school. American sports. The League of Nations. The return of the Puritan. The Seabury investigation. The better self. Service. Crooks at the helm.

Eleanor could compose a beautiful pageant on any of these themes. She won't.

She has it built by the students.

What scenes could we show to make up a pageant upon "These Hard Times"?

She coaxes oral composition out of that crowd of youngsters. Every day they propose perfectly impossible episodes on which she comments: "Thank you. Write it down, secretary. Now some more. Some one else. What have you seen or what do you see in your mind's eye that we could do on this stage, or in this gymnasium?"

In five or six meetings she gets enough to run a Chinese theater for six months. Then she meets the twenty or thirty on her pageant committee and they go over these minutes. They select a theme that is worth while, that will leave a sense of something big, that is essentially moral, if you please, that can be made interesting, that can be brought up to an inspiring climax. Washington Irving High School, Erasmus Hall High School, New York Training School for Teachers, Geneseo State Normal School, Hyde Park High School in Chicago—oh! pshaw, hundreds of junior and senior high-schools in America—have teachers who have worked up magnificent pageants upon really noble themes. You can do it if you will realize the fact that a profusion of creative

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ability is in your boys and girls which will sprout and blossom if you let the sunshine of encouragement shine on them and avoid the chill of criticism.

MITIGATING THE PAGEANT

Having settled upon two or three themes worth the trouble, you take them back to assembly for discussion and choice. You mull over a selected one with your assembly. You ask teachers personally and separately to suggest scenes, episodes, climaxes. The thing takes form. You select classes for the different features so that each group of your pageant is a separate platoon in some class or other in school and, therefore, not going to require upsetting of classes. Your group leaders, with volunteer teachers to help and advise (the good Lord sprinkles many such in every teaching staff), plan and rehearse their doings separately. The only additional thing they have to know is their cue for coming on at the right time. No mass rehearsal of the whole pageant is necessary at all, for the production is a series of episodes each presented by a separate company. You cast your main characters, if your theme calls for such, so that you have two actors for each *dramatis persona*. This relieves you from the worry of dreading the sickness or absence of one of your principals and prevents that awful situation in which some young minx, fed up with importance, threatens not to be "in it." You plan two entire performances so that each star may shine with her own glory, *for the happiness of mankind*, "for this pageant, my dears, is for the general welfare, not for your fun or mine. The happiness you get out of it is that you are doing worth-while things for somebody else."

It works.

Don't I know?

Haven't I seen magnificent aggregations of music, color, and rhythmic multitude, generous high-school youth filling with superb beauty a field on Randall's Island for the joy of the orphans there? Haven't I seen radiant youngsters producing magnificent pageantry for the benefit of this or that community welfare which is apart from the school's treasury?

When do the gentle and generous impulses of the human heart begin to flower? Isn't it at the high-school age? Whose privilege and joy is it to lure these adolescent longings away from the cheap and frothy and worse?

Yours, by your halidome!

What's a halidome? A holy place, a sanctuary. If you can't see that school is that—verily a civic tabernacle consecrated to a more perfect union and general welfare, not to selfish delight—then fade away, begone, pack yourself off, get out. You are of no use to these sad times.

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SOME THOUGHTS ON SUMMER SCHOOLS

F. S. DE GALAN

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. De Galan is director, Department of Evening and Summer Schools, Detroit. What should be the real function of summer high schools? Why have they not developed more rapidly? These and other questions are considered in the "thoughts."*

F. E. L.

SUMMER schools below the college level constitute a phase of public-school operation of importance, inasmuch as nearly every public-school system of any magnitude at some time has attempted to carry on summer classes or is more or less successfully doing so. According to the Biennial Survey of Education of the Bureau of Education for 1926, over five hundred cities are conducting summer terms, with an enrollment of close to 500,000 pupils and with 12,000 teachers. This survey shows a large increase in the volume of summer work since 1920.

In spite of its growing importance there is no other activity carried on quite generally by public schools which functions with less uniformity of method or less in accordance with a generally accepted model than do the various summer-school systems. Each community seems simply to have worked out a plan to suit local conditions which, of course, vary widely in various parts of the country. There is practically no discussion or conference among summer-school administrators, no section of the various education associations is organized for deliberation upon the problems of summer school, and, as far as the writer knows, there is no printed organ devoted to their interest. Nor is there an extensive literature dealing with them, although there is a fairly adequate one if the investigator sets out to look for it.

In view of these conditions, consideration of summer schools is always in order and is the justification for this brief review. For a recent and detailed survey one might well read a most excellent study called "Summer Work in Public Schools," written by Charles W. Odell and published

by the University of Illinois as Bulletin No. 49.

Summer schools are a direct result of the almost universal custom of closing the regular school plant during the summer months. To determine the exact origin of this custom might require considerable research. It was founded, no doubt, in rural necessities, since the children were needed to help with the harvests through most of the summer. Whatever the reason, the practice of closing during the summer has become firmly established with little chance of change, unless in the direction of longer vacations. Several factors impel one to this opinion: Climatic conditions make summer study a hard task in most cities of the United States; the growth of leisure and the increasing disposition and ability of the people to spend the summer at resorts, in travel and recreation promise to continue. The majority of the people and perhaps of the members of the teaching profession themselves are satisfied with the term program as it is.

Nevertheless, paradoxically, the moment the summer closing time comes near, the spirit of efficiency deeply seated in the average American community begins to stir. It contemplates on the one hand a costly school plant lying idle through a long period. In the same glance it perceives the great mass of school children left in idleness at best and running wild at worst. Connecting up the two observations, the community acts, and the result is the usual typical summer-school emergency program, which, after some experiment, adapts itself to the local conditions. Thus the various programs, while on the whole conforming to a general pattern, differ in details in as

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many ways as there are communities attempting summer schools.

Early attempts to organize the summer work, beginning in the sixties of the last century, took the form of simple vacation schools in which the aim was to gather children from the games of the streets and commons, and furnish them with more profitable occupation for their leisure time. Basketry, sewing, drawing, controlled play, and the like were the first activities. These schools were fostered usually by philanthropic organizations rather than by educational authorities, but the use of school buildings was often secured, and so the activity eventually drifted into the control of and became a part of the school organization.

With this development came a gradual expansion of the summer-school program with changes tending to reduce or eliminate the early activities and to substitute the academic courses of the regular schools. The next and necessary development was the awarding of promotions for satisfactory work in the academic subjects. And so the summer organization tended to become quickly a miniature replica of the regular organization. The reason for this evolution was the natural desire of the school officials who were placed in charge to cause the activity to grow and flourish. This could not be done without the offer of some tangible reward in the way of promotions. The brevity of the time available for covering courses was an embarrassment, the administrator being faced with the dilemma of either cutting the courses themselves below a reasonable minimum, or reducing the number of courses and retaining only the bare essential or basic ones. Although the results of summer work under these modifications, judged by studies made of the students' progress in the next courses in regular schools, were not unsatisfactory on the whole, nevertheless, an impression of inadequacy, if not absurdity, re-

mained in the minds of summer-school administrators regarding the length of the summer-school term. And so once more plans for all-year schools began to be put forward and finally, in a few cases, given a trial.

I say "once more" because, though there may be something new under the sun, the twelve-month school year is not a new proposal. Several cities early in the nineteenth century had carried on what were, in principle, twelve-month schools but which in the course of time had lapsed and were all but forgotten.

Prominent among the pioneers in the revival were Newark, New Jersey, and Nashville, Tennessee, with a small number of lesser cities, which have either followed suit or have independently "gone twelve-month." Most of these have the same general attempted solution of the all-year-school problem. The all-year plan will stand out more clearly if compared with a sketch of the characteristic summer-school plan of most other communities, which we will briefly set forth.

The typical school system has two semesters of approximately twenty weeks each. During the balance of ten weeks a limited number of the schools, say ten per cent, are reopened for a special summer term of six to eight weeks, with classes in session for four to six hours per day for five days per week. The total number of hours of the summer term thus approximates one third of the regular term.

In the elementary summer schools this time is devoted to not more than one half of the subjects or courses offered during the regular semesters. The subjects retained are invariably the basic courses: English, mathematics, and social science. The time given to each subject totals about sixty hours as compared with approximately ninety hours in the regular semester. Promotion after this brief time is, as a rule,

reserved for unusually good students or for those who have been repeating the course as a result of a previous failure. The rest are sent back presumably strengthened for the following semester.

In the summer high schools the courses may be restricted to a selection of two from a list of all or part of the regular semester's courses. Since the number of hours of class work in each course thus practically equals the time in the regular semester, most difficulties due to the time element disappear, and promotions are given on the basis usual in regular school. Two half units of credit, however, are all that a summer session so organized can yield.

In carrying out this scheme the administrative and teaching staff each summer must undergo a complete reorganization. A selection is made of the best of the applicants. The total applicants will ordinarily number one third to one fourth of the regular staff. Ultimately the selected summer staff will consist of about ten per cent of the regular staff. Almost invariably the proffered wage will be somewhat less than that prevailing during the regular year, for no good reason other than that the law of supply and demand has an opportunity to function freely.

There is not space in this brief outline to permit our entering into an adequate analysis of the worth of this prevailing summer-school plan and its product. Briefly stated, its advantages are those which go with flexibility since it readily may be lengthened, shortened, or omitted as circumstances may make advisable from year to year. Its disadvantages are those inherent in emergency enterprises.

The hope of eliminating these disadvantageous features prompts the plans for all-year schools, which aim to make the summer session an integral part of the school year.

A typical all-year-school plan divides the year into four twelve-week terms, each a

unit and as nearly as possible of equal content. Attendance upon any three is compulsory and upon the other one optional. Pupils may move forward or finish their school career, as the case may be, at the close of each term.

The objects in view are several: To distribute the vacations, if taken, over the school year, thus reducing the average pupil load; to advance ambitious pupils through the twelve grades in fewer years, thus ultimately reducing the number of seats and schools needed, and in turn effecting a positive saving to the taxpayer; and, finally, to give the teaching force a longer working year by eliminating the enforced long vacation without pay.

Ideally, the plan should so work out.

In actual operation¹ it does not achieve its goals. First of all, it does not repeal the weather nor change the disposition of the bulk of the people to take their vacations during the hot summer. As a result, only fifty per cent of the pupils attend the summer term and practically none take a vacation during any other term.

A disappointingly small proportion of the summer enrollment continues through to the end of the term, and only a part of these pass. Only a part of the teaching force is employed through the summer term, and so the rest get only nine months instead of ten months of employment. Moreover, it is found absolutely necessary to make concessions to the heat in framing the program of courses for the summer term, thus losing the equality of content among the terms, and so a considerable part of those who pass in the summer term fail in the fall term.

In brief, this plan has most of the defects of the short emergency summer plan, and in addition shortens the regular year by one month. Those who do not attend the sum-

¹ See "The All-Year School of Nashville, Tennessee," Field Studies No. 3, Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

SOME THOUGHTS ON SUMMER SCHOOLS

mer term are away from school twelve weeks instead of ten. The terms are out of joint with school systems which are on the orthodox plan. As a solution of the problem of summer use of the school plant it does not fulfill expectations.

A better arrangement, it seems to the writer, would be a combination of the best of both the all-year plan and the emergency summer-school plan.

The regular year could be divided into four ten-week terms; each present "A" and "B" class being divided into advanced and beginning sections, a teacher handling two sections or one, as the numbers warranted; promotions or failures would be announced at the end of each ten-week term and pupils would start advance work or begin to repeat failures at once. Ten weeks would be saved the latter pupils over the present twenty-week semester. The closer grading and the shorter terms would conform to the modern practices of more individualized instruction and budgeted study.

The summer term would also be ten weeks. The time and content of the academic courses would thus more nearly equal that of the regular terms, even if modified to suit summer climatic conditions. Promotions would be for a ten-week period, or one term only. Summer offerings other than academic could be independent of any special time requirement.

The summer program would consist of academic work for advancement and the remedy of failures, and of several activities of a less formal nature designed to attract boys and girls into the schools. Shop classes for the boys and sewing for the girls, art, music, and play classes for all would be some of the offerings. A return in part to the old play-school idea is the sum and substance of the nonacademic part of this summer program.

All pupils who intended to remain in the city would be urged to enroll for the sum-

mer term. All pupils in good health would be permitted to take the academic courses, but only those best qualified to profit by extra work would be urged to do so. These would usually be the brighter ones and those who wished to make up failures. For advancement the passing standards would frankly be high and all who failed to achieve them would receive only certificates of strengthened work. The aim would be to take as many boys and girls as possible off the streets and into the wholesome environment of the schools, and all other reasons for a summer program would be subordinated to this one aim. No money would be saved directly. The annual cost in dollars would be higher than if the schools remained closed, which is true of all school terms. The return would be in service to the community, which is the only return schools are expected to make. Purely as by-products of this summer plan the school plant would be in greater use, the teachers would have more opportunity for additional work, and many pupils would be farther advanced when they finally came to leave school.

In spite of its merits there is not much immediate likelihood that use of the summer plant on an extensive scale will become general. The chief obstacle is the disposition on the part of appropriating bodies to view summer work as an added expense and to welcome the respite from spending which the summer vacation affords. Educational experts are not unanimous as to the value of summer schools or all-year schools as so far conducted, nor do they agree on what constitutes a proper program. Some are satisfied that the vacation is the best arrangement for the children, and many feel that it is the best one for the teaching profession as well, since it gives opportunity for needed rest and study. Undoubtedly, climatic conditions are unfavorable for the best work nearly everywhere in the United States and are impossible in many localities.

Educators, on the whole, are awaiting a mandate from the public. It is safe to say that, when one comes, an adequate program of summer schooling will quickly be in operation.

TRAVEL

EDWIN MIMS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *In my opinion this article on travel by Edwin Mims, of Vanderbilt University, is a gem.*
E. L. M.

The little road says Go;
The little house says Stay.
And O, it's bonnie here at home,
But I must go away.

SOME young people's minds about this time of the year turn to travel as other's turn to love. It does not take the advertisements in the newspapers with their glowing suggestions of the uttermost parts of the earth to stimulate this well nigh universal wanderlust. Some begin to dream of the sea, or the mountains, or the far west, while others will be satisfied only if they can find some way, even if it be doing hard work on some tramp steamer, to go to Europe or to the Orient. Charles Merz in his *Great American Bandwagon* makes the interesting suggestion that the *Bremen* or any of the other great boats is the modern American's substitute for the covered wagon of pioneer days—both of them appealing to the adventurous spirit that would go the unknown ways.

The main trouble about this American desire for travel is that it has become standardized as has everything else in American life. We go on tours that are carefully planned by others; every minute of the time we are gone is made to fit into a rigid schedule which allows for no individuality of choice. Americans are rushed from steamer to train or bus, from hotel to hotel, and attempt to see everything in Europe within six weeks or two months. They spend the night in Oxford on a quick journey from Paris to Edinburgh; they whirl from point to point in

large groups of fellow Americans. Their chief points of rendezvous when they are not traveling are American Express or Cook offices, or perhaps some movie fresh from Hollywood. They see nothing of the life of the people of the respective countries, and never wander from the beaten tracks of travel into quiet places where the atmosphere of a country may best be felt. They return jaded and bored, anxious to catch once more a glimpse of "God's own country," which, they are convinced, is so much better than any other country their eyes have beheld. They are satisfied that there are no other hotels or railroads or automobiles half so good as ours.

Emerson with his usual power of divination anticipated this rage for standardized traveling when he said, "Traveling is a fool's paradise," and suggested that it is for want of self-culture. "He who travels to be amused," he continues, "or to get somewhat which he does not carry, travels away from himself, and grows old even in youth among old things. . . . At home I dream that at Naples, at Rome, I can be intoxicated with beauty and lose my sadness. I pack my trunk, embrace my friends, embark on the sea and at last wake up in Naples, and there beside me is the stern fact, the sad self, unrelenting, identical, that I fled from. I seek the Vatican and the palaces. I affect to be intoxicated with sights and suggestions, but I am not."

I shall assume that none of my readers

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belong to this class, or to those of the sentimental type, who in a conventional and superficial way respond to all the preachments of guides. Affectation is nowhere so much in evidence as in groups of boys and girls who are shepherded about in all parts of Europe, and told what to like and what not to like. There is no sound education in all this, however many parties may be organized for the purpose.

I hope that I am writing for those who are seriously concerned about the educational value of travel, and that, from experience and observation, I may be able to be of some practical value to them. I am not at all inclined to underestimate the aesthetic and spiritual values of travel, and of these I shall speak later on. I begin with the solid results to be obtained. I do not believe that there is a better time for one to go abroad than just at the end of a high-school course, or even earlier if it is possible. It is no exaggeration to say that the value of courses in literature, history, and other subjects is greatly enhanced by intelligent travel. The mind is so constituted that it retains and appreciates that to which some meaning is attached by reason of associations. So often words mean nothing—"words, words, words"—unless they are made vivid and real by actual experience or observation. Think of the difference between two students of Wordsworth, for instance, one of whom has lived for even two weeks in the Lake Country and the other who has not; or of the difference between two students of European history, one of whom has traveled to and in Paris, London, and Rome and the other who has not. From the standpoint of the mere economy of time in the assimilation and appreciation of what we read and study there is the best possible reason for insisting upon travel as an indispensable aid to education. And the sooner it begins, the better.

There is no other way quite so sure to get a foreign language as to go to a country for

two or three months and apply oneself to the task. That is the way the French learn English, and the Germans every language in Europe. I know a young girl who spent a year abroad at the end of her high-school course studying French, German, and Italian. She was able to enter advanced college classes in all these subjects and had a feeling for the language and literature that her fellow students could not have, although they had worked for years at them. To live in a foreign *pension* or in a foreign school, to go to the theaters and operas, to seek every opportunity to talk with people in all forms of social life, to read incessantly in a literature without too much attention to details of grammar and syntax—all this will lead to far more than familiarity with the language; one gets the atmosphere, the life of a country, the backgrounds that are so essential for understanding literature, history, social problems, and even philosophy. Even one summer spent in this way would be of far more value than a regulation tour through all the principal countries of Europe.

I have always been glad that my first summer abroad was spent altogether in England and Scotland—unfortunately, not in my boyhood days. I was then in the first glow of my discovery of English literature, having made up my mind to give my life to its interpretation. There was no difficulty, of course, with the language of another country, except in dialect and accent that sometimes demanded repetitions of questions and answers. I walked a good deal, went longer distances in busses and trains, tried to locate all the places and houses associated with English authors—lived strenuously, in fact, and yet found time to do a good deal of reading. Invisible companions were with me everywhere. In an inn just across from the tavern that Burns immortalized in his *Jolly Beggars* I read Burns till late at night, and the next afternoon walked to Mossiel Farm, meeting, by happy chance, a group of

Scotch lads and lassies singing some of the poet's songs. In Edinburgh I read, along with the inevitable Baedeker, the *Heart of Midlothian*, *Marmion*, Lockhart's *Life of Scott*, Stevenson's beautiful essay on "Auld Reekie." At Melrose Abbey, Dryburgh Abbey, and, above all, at Abbotsford, I lived in imagination with the king of all the romantics. My heart was in the Highlands as I reread the *Lady of the Lake* on Loch Lomond. A walk along the Esk River brought me to one of the most picturesque spots in the British Isles—Hawthornden with sweet memories of Drummond and Ben Jonson.

That was my introduction to European travel. In the same way I explored nearly every part of England. Since then I have visited in much the same way France, Italy, and Germany. Six months in Paris and the surrounding country, two months in Italy, mostly in Florence and Rome, six weeks in Heidelberg—these are outstanding memories that cause me to emphasize the stimulation and inspiration of travel. My regret is that I did not begin earlier, that I have not gone oftener, and that there are still so many places on the earth that I have not seen. I sympathize with Holmes's remark that when he got to Heaven he would make the request that he be given the chance to see some places he had not seen while in the flesh. That is the way I feel about Greece, Norway, Constantinople, Japan, China—and how many other places on this round globe! I know what Whitman meant when he said, "To look up or down no road, but it stretches and waits for you."

But I am growing too personal. One naturally thinks that his way of doing things is best. It is wiser to adapt one of Kipling's sayings about poetry, and say that there are many ways of traveling, many objects to be had in mind, and every single one of them is right—provided it brings results commensurate with the effort. I know two young

college boys who are now planning to spend the summer in England; they are expecting to find some work on a steamer that will get them over and back, and then to ride bicycles all through the country; and the object they have in mind is to make their honors course in English mean more for them by getting the backgrounds of English literature. I know of a group of boys and girls who are planning a trip to Italy, under the guidance of a first-rate Latin scholar, to study Latin and Italian so that they will be better prepared to go on with advanced work in those subjects. Another main object that one might have in view is the study of the masterpieces of art as found in a few of the great galleries of Europe, or an intensive study of Gothic architecture as it is found in, say, a dozen great cathedrals of England and France. Even where such intensive study might be out of the question, I submit that a more leisurely trip, when one would loaf and invite his soul in moods of wise passiveness, would gain by limiting the field of operations. Anything is better than an aimless, meaningless drifting or a mechanized program.

I should insist, too, that intelligent reading while one is traveling is very helpful and stimulating. A good guide book, accurate and up-to-date, is indispensable, but it does not take the place of the creative literature that has grown out of such and such a place—a poem, a novel, a biography, vital history, etc. If one will look up the lending libraries, or even the public libraries, he can make arrangement for drawing out books in almost any village. If he watches out for second-hand bookstores, he can find books that are surprisingly cheap. To have in England, for instance, Green's *Short History of the English People*, or the *Oxford Book of English Verse*, or even Palgrave's *Golden Treasury*, to read the *Essays of Elia* or Boswell's *Johnson* in London, or to track out the interesting places in London with the

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aid of Lucas's *A Wanderer in London*; to follow the same author through Paris or Florence; to read Victor Hugo's great romance while trying to understand Notre Dame Cathedral or the mediaeval city; to read Symonds's *Renaissance in Italy* or his *Life of Michelangelo Buonarroti* while you are in Florence, or *Childe Harold* while you are in Venice and Rome—these are bright intervals that lend enchantment to life. There is no end to such suggestions; the best experiences are those that one is apt to find for himself and to cherish all the more because they are so intimate and individual.

Everything depends on whether the traveler has the open or the closed mind. There are far too many Americans who have been influenced by Mark Twain's books of travels which have flattered the reader's lack of cultivation and his mediocrity. Such books express a sort of defense mechanism in the presence of European art and culture. Their incomparable humor cannot obscure the author's lack of cultivation and even his grotesqueness. It so happened that I re-read *Innocents Abroad* and *A Tramp Abroad* just at the end of a year's travel and study in Europe. They were, to one who is perhaps naturally inclined to a romantic view of European art and scenery, the best possible antidote to sentimentalism and affectation, the best possible satire on hundreds of travelers from this country. I, too, had heard in art galleries Americans of little culture exclaiming, "Oh, how wonderful!" "Such grace of attitude." "Such expression," "Such matchless coloring," etc. But while Mark Twain thus satirized the affectation of his countrymen, he was himself the prototype of an increasing number of Americans who see only the weak points of European civilization as compared with the strong points of American civilization. His books have helped to make the bumptious, self-satisfied American, with a certain pride

in his lack of culture and a certain contempt for anything that is beyond his narrow horizon. They are a perfectly natural answer to foreign criticisms of America; the author may be pardoned for answering Ruskin's sneer about America's lack of ruins by emphasizing the poverty, the filth, and the surviving feudalism of Europe. It was natural for him to introduce into a chapter on Rome a speech on enterprise and self-reliance that he as an American would like to make to the inhabitants of the imperial city. Such books are, furthermore, in very healthy contrast with the observations of such expatriated Americans as Henry James.

The true criticism of Mark Twain's attitude is to be found in that of another type of American—the man who unites with a love of his own country an appreciation of what is best in European art and culture. Washington Irving had a genuine feeling for the original elements in American life, but he wrote the *Sketch Book*, a sympathetic interpretation of the best features of English life and tradition. Hawthorne felt as no other writer the strong and the weak points of New England Puritanism, but he wrote *Our Old Home* and *The Marble Faun*—books full of the charm and romance of the old world. If Longfellow wrote *Evangeline* and *Hiawatha*, he also wrote *Nuremberg*, *The Belfrey of Bruges*, the sonnets on Dante, which suggest what he owed to the architecture and literature of an alien people. Lowell was the author of the *Biglow Papers* and "On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners," but he wrote also "The Cathedral" and many essays that show his familiarity with foreign writers. All these men represent a happy balance between two extremes—a vigorous, self-confident, sensible American like Mark Twain, and a cosmopolitan overrefined, man-without-a-country like Henry James.

SCHEDULE MAKING AND ENROLLMENT PROCEDURE

ELI C. FOSTER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Foster, of the Central High School, Tulsa, writes that he will send copies of the forms mentioned in this article to any one desiring them. We regret that lack of space prevents their publication in this issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE.*

F. E. L.

THE purpose of this article is to give a description of the schedule making and enrollment procedure used in Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, a senior high school of more than 4,000 pupils, organized on the semester plan with complete enrollment of all pupils each semester. The discussion herein is in three parts: (1) Guidance of Pupils; (2) The Making of the Schedule; (3) The Enrollment of Pupils.

GUIDANCE

The guidance program begins with the 9A group in the junior high schools. There is a required course in occupations in this grade and one unit is devoted to a study of the senior high school. Materials of instruction for this unit are found, in part, in a printed Manual of Administration. It is a guide of 269 pages through which the students may become informed on the ideals, customs, traditions, regulations, curricula, and requirements of Central High School. A printed bulletin on curricula and requirements is also furnished. This is used in guiding and planning the selection of subjects and the planning of the student's individual curriculum sheet. It contains specific requirements for graduation, suggestive three-year curricula for college preparatory, business and commercial, home economics, manual arts and trades, music, general vocational, and citizenship. It also lists required and elective subjects offered in each of the twelve departments.

After the student has studied this bulletin under the direction of his 9A teacher, the principal of Central High School and the sophomore class director visit each group and discuss with the student his curriculum sheet, which has space for the freshman studies, for personal information regarding

the student, and for listing by semesters the studies for his complete senior-high-school curriculum.

The pupil, with the aid of his parents and 9A teacher, then makes out on this sheet his complete curriculum. This is in turn checked by the sophomore class director who again makes visits to advise with individual students who need further instructions or guidance.

This curriculum sheet is filled out by each student before he enters Central High School, whether he enters as a sophomore or later. It is done under the direction of the class director, sophomore, junior, or senior. It is then placed in the hands of the homeroom teacher during each period of enrollment and is carried, with necessary corrections, so long as he remains a student in Central High School.

This necessitates future planning and careful study of the offerings of the school. The curriculum, once selected, can be changed by the recommendation of the homeroom teacher with the advice and consent of the class director or principal.

The pupil's most intimate adviser is the homeroom teacher. The core content of the sophomore homeroom is the Manual of Administration mentioned above. Students entering the junior or senior classes from other schools are required to familiarize themselves with this manual.

In addition to this printed material, there is issued each semester a detailed descriptive mimeographed bulletin listing each study, the nature of the course, the ground covered, the prerequisites, and the amount of credit given.

Each student is given the following letter addressed to his parents:

SCHEDULE MAKING

A LETTER TO PARENTS CONCERNING PURPOSEFUL CHOICE OF HIGH-SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Boys and girls from the elementary schools the country over are pouring into the high schools for additional education. The high school is rapidly becoming a part of the common school education for all the children of all the people. High-school graduates promise to be more common tomorrow than grade-school graduates are in our adult population of today.

The high school of yesterday was largely an academic institution, offering only college preparatory courses. Today many vocational subjects are being offered in high school, and the student entering high school is confronted with the responsibility of choosing purposefully what subjects he will take.

The most fruitful opportunity of Tulsa High School in coöperation with parents is to guide its students in choosing subjects of study that will equip them to do well a work which they enjoy, which society wants done, and for which society as a consequence will reward them liberally. About sixty per cent of the graduates of Tulsa High School each year enter a life pursuit; the remainder enter college. For some types of special and skillful service to society a college training is required; for many other types of work it is not necessary.

However, as a foundation for complete high-grade human living in our intricate society, college training is highly desirable for all who can attain it. Tulsa University makes it possible for Tulsa students to do college work in a fully accredited institution without the additional cost of going away from home, and to have their credits transferred to other institutions.

Much loss of time, energy, and income results from aimless effort in high school. Students who do not plan to go to college should elect those subjects which equip them for specific life pursuits. Excellent opportunities in Tulsa and its vicinity await our graduates in oil fields, refineries, offices, banks, stores, factories, shops, hospitals, homes, and on farms. Courses are offered in oil-field mapping, shopwork, machine drawing, architecture, electrical appliances, auto mechanics, carpentry, cabinet making, acetylene welding, commercial art, interior decoration, banking, book-keeping, office appliances, typewriting, filing, business administration, retail selling, stenography, printing, presswork, linotyping, journalism, millinery, dressmaking, dietetics, agriculture, geology, chemistry, aviation, and music, all of which help students to adapt themselves to these fields upon finishing these special courses.

Students going to college should take a very limited amount of any of the above mentioned special courses. Colleges demand or prefer for entrance credits in English, mathematics, foreign language, science, and history. The minimum entrance requirements of most Western universities and colleges are two years of mathematics, two years of one foreign language, two years of history, two years of science, and three years of English. College entrance requirements, however, vary greatly. The minimum requirements for most Eastern universities are four years of English, three years of Latin, and two years of Spanish or French, three years of mathematics, two years of history, and two years of science. Students and parents should decide early the college to be attended, and then select the high-school subjects which meet that college's entrance requirements.

This letter is addressed to high-school patrons with the sincere hope and urge that subjects be selected which will equip our young people for the opportunities and obligations ahead of them. Students will soon be making their choice of subjects for next semester. For those who are in the earlier years of the high school, a course for the remainder of the high-school work should be planned now, not only for the next year, but for each of the succeeding high-school years. Class directors and homeroom teachers are eager to counsel with patrons and students in planning purposeful courses. The services of the Dean of Girls, the Dean of Boys, and the Principal are also at your disposal in dealing with your guidance problems.

Very sincerely yours,

ELI C. FOSTER, *Principal*

Approved:

MERLE PRUNTY

Superintendent of Schools

GALEN JONES

Assistant Superintendent

In Charge of Secondary Schools

It is the duty of the homeroom teacher to learn enough of the personality, environment, capabilities, and plans of the student to guide him in his school work, to advise him regarding difficulties which arise, and whenever possible to help him in his choice of work or college following school. Each teacher has a group of from thirty to forty students. The plan is to keep the same group with each teacher throughout its high-school career.

The chief function of the class director is

guidance. The sophomore class director is freed from teaching classes. The junior and senior directors each teach two classes. A meeting of each class is held once each week with the director in charge.

A segregated assembly is held once each month with the respective dean in charge.

The deans and class directors meet on alternate weeks with the principal. At this time guidance meetings, with homeroom teachers, and class assemblies are planned.

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The first step in actual schedule making is the advance survey, taken the eleventh week of the semester. An advance selection card is used for this purpose. Each student, including the 9A's in junior high school, fills it out with his choice of subjects for the semester. This is done, at this step, without reference to choice of teacher, period, or ability grouping.

The homeroom teacher who directs the selection has at hand all the guidance materials mentioned above, and has, in addition, for junior and senior students, a requirement card made out by the registrar in the principal's office.

Every effort is made to prepare this advance survey accurately in order that it may be followed in schedule building. Students are advised to select studies carefully and thoughtfully since changes will be difficult to make.

These advance selections are tabulated by clerks in the principal's office during the twelfth week of the semester. A copy of the mimeographed tabulation is sent to each of the department directors. They in turn set up their departmental schedule, during the thirteenth week of the semester, using principally the block system described in Puckett's *Making a High School Schedule of Recitations*, pages 131-136.

No attempt is made to assign certain periods for certain subjects, or to rotate the

periods so that certain subjects will come at different periods of the day on different days.

The department directors have at hand information on ability grouping to enable them to provide in their schedule for the correct number of sections. Students are grouped according to ability in English, social studies, mathematics, language, and some of the subjects in commerce and home economics. The three-track plan is used. High, average, and low groups are designated as A, B, and C, respectively.

The schedules of each department are then checked in the office of the principal by a method which corresponds to the mosaic method described by Puckett in *Making a High School Schedule of Recitations*, pages 136-138. Since there are so many sections in each subject it is not difficult to arrange the few single section subjects in each department so as to prevent conflicts.

The twelve departmental schedules are synchronized; room, homeroom, and study-hall assignments made; and conflicts eliminated by the principal's office. The schedule is then printed in an eight-page bulletin called *Schedule of Assignments*, with departmental schedules arranged alphabetically.

ENROLLMENT

Advance selection cards are returned to the students through the homeroom during the fifteenth week of the semester. The student then obtains an O.K. for each subject. Class teachers O.K. for sequence of subject. Subjects in a new department are O.K.'d, by the homeroom teacher, except a few which must have the O.K. of the department director. Any change from the original selection must have the signature of the parents.

When all subjects on the advance selection cards are O.K.'d, the printed schedule of assignments, office schedule cards, and student's schedule of recitation cards are

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distributed. The student's schedule is arranged on the office schedule card with reference to the period and teacher as scheduled. This is made out by the pupil in pencil and is checked by the homeroom teacher. The student's schedule of recitation card is filled out in ink, leaving blank the space for teacher's name. These cards are returned to the principal's office during the sixteenth week.

Previous to this time envelopes have been filled out by the teachers for each class. The outside of the envelope states the subject, hour, teacher, room, and capacity of the class. Inside the envelope are placed class slips, equal in number to the class size and filled out in full except for the student's name. The envelopes are arranged in files by departments.

During the last two weeks of the semester a clerical staff of capable students and members of the office force, under the direction of the assistant to the principal, take the student schedule cards and pull slips from the envelopes for each subject or study on the schedule. When all slips in the envelope are gone the class is closed and student cards with this class listed are changed.

The student's name is written on the class slip and these slips are returned, through the department directors, to the teachers for a class roll. The office schedule card is filed in the principal's office. The student class card is stamped approved and is carried on the first day of the new semester and signed by all teachers. Teachers report to the office the names of any students who appear and for whom they do not have class slips, as well as the names of students for whom they have class slips but who do not appear in class. This makes possible the checking

of attendance the first day of the semester.

Students receive their new cards through their homeroom one day before the first semester closes. They are taken home for final approval. If changes are required they are solicited on a request for change of schedule blank. This change must be O.K.'d by parents and homeroom teacher and made before the student enters his first class. The teacher receives from the office a slip showing change. This plan has greatly reduced changes after classes meet and increases the importance and value of the first day of the semester.

The students come for their student class cards one week before the beginning of the fall semester and make necessary changes before the first class meets.

The exact procedure is followed as during the first semester except that the clerical work is done during the summer.

The cost of the clerical set-up for the enrollment procedure is approximately two hundred fifty dollars for the enrollment of four thousand students. Student help at twenty five cents per hour is used for the most part.

All forms are printed in the Board of Education Print Shop, Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma. Samples will be mailed on request.

This plan of schedule making and enrollment procedure has worked effectively in Tulsa Central High School. It has caused students to choose intelligently. It has worked with the least amount of confusion and red tape. It has been economical as a time saver, and has made possible a full and complete school day on the first day of each semester.

TEACHING SCIENCE AS A WAY OF LIFE

ELSBETH KROEBER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the fourth and final article in the series edited by John L. Tildsley dealing with subjects as ways of life. Miss Kroeber is chairman of the biology department, James Madison High School, New York City.*

F. E. L.

THIS was the title of Dr. John L. Tildsley's annual report to the Board of Superintendents of the Board of Education of New York City for the year 1927-1928. In it he recorded the opinions, the ideals, the experiences of almost five hundred science teachers in the New York City schools, the testimony of some sixteen thousand science pupils. Valuable as this report is as evidence of the status of science, its true value lies elsewhere. In stimulating thought and discussion and in uniting science teachers of this city in giving to their profession the best that lay within them, its importance has been inestimable.

Teaching biology as a way of life. For teachers of other subjects to adhere to tradition, to old curricula, to worn-out methods is inexcusable but understandable; for teachers of biology this is unpardonable. Ours is so recent a subject that we have not the load of generations of tradition to weigh us down. Again, as our science changes and grows—and it changes all too rapidly for comfort—as we are forced to reëvaluate and learn and unlearn, we are not permitted to sink into lethargy and complacency. In revising our facts and syllabi we are given a natural opportunity to reconsider our objectives. As biologists we cannot stand still; as our science grows we either keep pace or fall backward. If we grow it is almost axiomatic that our point of view towards our subject, towards life, and education should change. As biologists, too, we are possibly a little more prone, whether through training or natural inclination, not to accept without questioning, not to act without experimenting. And lastly, perhaps subconsciously, we tend to translate into educational terms what the history

of our science teaches us. As we watch the drift away from taxonomy and morphology we incline automatically to shift our emphasis, not only in subject matter but in methods of teaching as well, from classification of facts, from memorization and recitation to experimenting and experiencing.

But not only may improvement in teaching be, with justice, demanded of us; there is that inherent in the subject matter of biology—the study of life—which should give us vision and breadth. That frequently we fall short of this ideal is patent, even to us. But can we, if we are thoughtful, teach the development of an organism which through differentiation brings an increasingly larger area of itself in touch with an increasingly wider environment, and continue in our teaching simply to pour information into a passive receptor? That is unbiological; instinctively we feel that as physiological growth is not a process of accretion so cultural development is not superficial acquisition. When we see ourselves in the biological mirror, insignificant living things among other countless millions, do we not gain a broader outlook on life, a different perspective? Can we have studied and really understood the genetic theory of inheritance which shows that each of us is a chance combination of countless genes, molded, of course, by outside factors of environment, and believe that Germans as a nation are essentially different from Englishmen; that the white race is fundamentally superior to the brown? Can we on the other hand believe that all *individuals*, whether racially the same or different, are equal? Can our present concept of democracy endure? Can we employ pedagogical

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methods which are based on an interpretation of the class as the educative unit, rather than on the individual? Not if biology means anything to us; not if our teachers before us really kindled a spark and made biology a part of us! Provided we are sincere and earnest, we cannot let these many thousands of boys and girls meet us once a day for ten months without attempting more than the teaching of bare facts. A more complete understanding of life, including human life, should impose upon us the obligation of "educating" in its broadest sense—bringing about changes with a view to developing an integrated personality.

Ten years ago the objectives of education were summed up readily in terms of making good citizens, good parents, good workers, and good users of leisure time, rather than making good Latin scholars. Manifestly, since all our pupils will in time become citizens, and most of them parents and workers and users of leisure time, the schools should teach them to perform these functions adequately rather than inadequately. Yet the teacher who in building a curriculum or teaching a class holds to the Seven Cardinal Principles will do no more for the community than he who twenty years earlier strove to make good Latin scholars. Scholarship in the classics, though perhaps not directly applicable to running an automobile, appreciating the pictures in the *Daily News*, or fulfilling any one of the hundred obligations of a daily life, is a definite goal and one that is attainable by at least a few. Is it not justifiable to strive to produce a perfect product of any kind, provided the necessary training makes the individual no less fitted for the exigencies of modern life? But the wholesale order for good citizens, parents, workers, and users of leisure time must result in confusion for if we follow such objectives we are following a wraith.

First, objectives must not be stated in terms of a complete whole; until we analyze the whole and see it in its parts we do not know what we are really after. A good citizen may be one who pays his taxes promptly so that the children of his city may all be housed in schools for six hours of the day and be kept out of mischief for another two hours; he may be one who pays his taxes grudgingly because he feels the teachers should be called to account for wasting his money in drilling on French verbs or demonstrating that the sum of the angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles. He may be an active member of the Democratic or Republican club and pride himself on loyal party affiliations—loyalty is a highly esteemed virtue—or he may, through an abnormal sense of duty, feel himself called upon to change the existing order of things and, therefore, have no party affiliations. Good citizenship of this generation might not be tolerated in the next. In short, a "good citizen" is a very complicated being; even with the superior knowledge which we possess by virtue of being teachers, we should find our classifying and pigeonholing rather difficult.

Secondly, objectives must not be thought of in terms of end results, but rather in terms of processes or experiences. Setting ourselves the objective of making an honest man will not suffice. We must plan our work and foster an atmosphere which will give repeated opportunity for honest discussion in the classroom. I recently visited a class taught by a teacher for whom every pupil felt the highest respect. The subject under discussion was the inheritance of acquired characters. In response to a statement made by the teacher in regard to non-inheritance, a pupil arose and in the presence of two visitors, one of them a school superintendent, deliberately said, "That's silly." The boy happened to be mistaken but he was honest, and teacher, class, and

visitors appreciated and accepted his honest protest without surprise or disapproval.

In the third place, much more significant than the negative hazard of not attaining the goal we set ourselves, with objectives such as these, is the positive danger of turning out generation after generation of mass-minded conformists. We do not educate *individuals*, but merely stamp all with the same mold. Such citizens and parents are not men and women for they are flat and lifeless. Since the time when we began to train for citizenship, parenthood, and efficiency in industry, we have proceeded steadily towards more complete standardization. More recently this same standardization is being advocated, with shifted emphasis. Since the depression has suggested the shortening of the working day, the predominant note in the discussion of educational objectives seems to be to train for proper use of leisure time. If we are making robots we shall have to provide for the inclusion of a device for their relaxation; if we are developing adults with complete and integrated personalities they will be as well fitted for using their leisure time as for doing their work, for performing their duties of citizenship as of parenthood.

Then what are the actual goals towards which we are looking? The objectives we should set down for ourselves, it seems to me, in teaching a lesson or planning a syllabus in biology should not be such remote generalities as making good citizens, but letting the child have such experiences, actual as vicarious, as will make him:

1. As intellectually fearless in school as he will have to be in later life if he is to think and act independently.

2. As intellectually honest as he must be if we would have him develop into an adult of complete integrity.

3. Practise reflective thinking so that he may, above all else, acquire an attitude of appreciation of all reflective thinking,

and, possibly, develop the habit in himself.

4. Open-minded and able to suspend judgment. This implies a problem-solving attitude; seeing the world in terms of problems, not in terms of facts.

5. Critical of himself and others, yet as tolerant towards others as towards himself.

6. Able to give accurate expression to his thoughts, dependent partly on keen observation and straight thinking, partly on practice.

7. Feel the beauty and wonder of biological organization.

8. Feel the thrill of creative work. To the scientist as well as to the artist comes the thrill of creation.

9. As perfect physically as he will need to be to enjoy a life which will obviously be a full one if he attains these other goals.

This is not a complete list nor are these objectives arranged in order of importance. Very briefly they could be summarized thus: to develop appreciation—an emotional growth; to develop a scientific attitude; and, lastly, to develop what is not directly a product of the scientific method, a sense of values coming from reflection, broad vision, and full experience, that which makes for happiness. The first and the last are obviously, from their very nature, objectives of all education. However, I do not hesitate to include objectives which may be common to other subjects, since my thesis is not to show the superiority of biology over all other subjects, of which I myself am not convinced, nor even to argue for its inclusion in the curriculum. I feel we should incorporate only such subjects in which the amount of factual knowledge necessary is commensurate with the useful techniques arrived at, techniques of reading intelligently, weighing, discussing, deciding, not such remote questions as whether the subjunctive mode or the ablative absolute is required but real problems such as the reasons for the present depression or the

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causes and the conditions of the Scopes trial.

The only question then that concerns me is, Can biology be taught so as to attain these objectives? Yes, as far as it is possible for us teachers who are ordinary human beings, who have very limited time for contacts with our pupils, to accomplish results. But only when syllabus makers think not in terms of facts to be taught but primarily in terms of attitudes to be created, and ask which facts will lend themselves best to this task; when teachers cease making a fetish of facts through regular textbook assignments, daily recitations, and standardized tests. In biology the absurdity of stressing facts is singularly apparent. New discoveries constantly contradict well-established "facts"; progress shifts the emphasis. We began by teaching that heat destroys vitamins; the following year we were teaching that canned tomatoes are as good as raw oranges from the point of view of vitamin content. Ten years ago it may have been important for our city children to know the life history of the house fly; in the year 1932 textbooks and syllabi still include this information although the garage has displaced the stable and carbon monoxide is more dangerous than the fly.

And not only must we discard the teaching of a large body of facts, but what is almost as important, we must change our interpretation of the teaching of the scientific method. Without constant application of the methods of science to the ordinary events of life, without making the pupil aware of the need for applying this method, we serve merely to train scientists, not to develop personalities. One of the steps in the scientific method is close observation, yet letting the pupil observe closely merely to train the powers of observation is useless. Letting him observe closely so as to give him a realization of the advantages and often the necessity of close observation

if he would know the truth; letting him observe closely so as to give him an appreciation of the danger of trusting to one's own hasty deductions without verification—such observation has great value. To instruct a group of pupils to examine and describe a culture dish showing colonies of bacteria has no intrinsic value as an exercise in observation or description, has only some value in teaching relatively useful facts about the occurrence of bacteria, but may well be utilized to show how unreliable is testimony given even under the best conditions. How necessary is the closest observation and the most precise expression if we would even approximate the truth; how essential is verification if we would know the truth! Then it is easy to show that in dealing with judgments which cannot be measured and weighed and definitely defined we are much more subject to error and prejudice, particularly so since these are frequently tinged by emotions. When the pupil tells "on good authority" of a child born with a birthmark resembling the object which inspired fear in the mother or of the exhumed corpse that showed an increase in length of hair and nails, even though twenty pupils in the class bring the same evidence from the experiences of twenty different families, he will be prepared to grant to such tales no more credence than to the superstitions which he had previously learned to discard. He is given an opportunity to see that this is not identical testimony that must be true because verified, since the case observed was not even the same case, nor were the witnesses reliable informants. If we stop here he has merely unburdened himself of one useless superstition; but our function is to go beyond, to show the pupil the "danger of believing that majority opinion constitutes proof."¹ Let us bring such things home to

¹ Jesse E. Whitsit, "Science and Intellectual Integrity," *Bulletin of High Points*, May 1925.

the pupil again and again and if we succeed in developing an appreciation of this we have taken a first small step in the direction of creating an attitude of vast importance, that of suspended judgment and open-mindedness. Through repeated exposure to problems the pupil will learn to hesitate before accepting, to doubt without denying. Reflection, at least in the classroom, will become habitual and when confronted with a problem the pupil will use the proper mode of attack. To test a class of fifteen-year-old boys and girls I deliberately asked the foolish question, "Then which is more important, heredity or environment?" It took but a short time for the pupils to tell me that this discussion was futile, that since both factors are essential we cannot determine relative importance. If we take time to sift all facts, to reflect, if we create opportunities for the pupils to express opinions which can sometimes be verified, often be weighed, but always considered seriously if honestly expressed, are we not accomplishing some of the objectives set forth above?

There was a period, before community civics was taught, when our biology syllabus included the teaching of the functions of the Board of Health, and we biology teachers pointed proudly to the inclusion of such a vital topic in place of the dissection of the crayfish; that time is long past. True, such facts have some value if the teacher through arousing a genuine interest can associate the facts with a civic sense of duty. But by as much as we make practical application of our science by just so much does it fail to realize possible and more desirable cultural values. The implication is not that we should neglect to teach, for example, the value of vitamins and the proper making of diets; but let us not feel that this and similar practical applications alone would justify a course in biology. Let us not believe that when we have compiled a

syllabus of hygienic facts, each of which is individually of importance to the child, and in which provision has even been made for utilizing such methods that the child not only abstractly learns but concretely practises, let us not believe that even then are we teaching biology as a way of life. I feel it is just here that general science, as now organized, fails. By teaching the child the mechanism of the electric bell and the automobile, even the ubiquity of bacteria, we may at some future time help him out of a tight place while knowledge of the appendages of the grasshopper or the succession of the English kings would leave him helpless under all emergencies, yet in neither case have we done anything to help him make the world a better place in which to live. All such teaching leads the pupils along one narrow avenue of life—an avenue long and direct without obstructions to impede progress but none the less one of which the man or woman we are professing to develop, would soon tire; we must provide numberless by-paths and varied vistas if we would send him out prepared for rich living.

Thus there is still more for us to accomplish. We must let the pupil, through constant exposure to the beautiful, exposure through his own initiative and desire, become sensitive to the beautiful. This, I believe, is one of the most important functions of our teaching. It is here that little help can be given the teacher. If the teacher feels the thrill and the inspiration of his subject, by as much as he is able to impart his enthusiasm to others he will be successful, provided always he is not bound by the fear of not being able to meet a formal examination, of not being able to complete an arbitrarily set task. And by the beautiful I do not mean what is so crassly referred to as "Nature," but I mean all that a biologist sees beyond the vision of the uninitiated in the out-of-doors, as well as in the simple

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manifestations of life in amoeba, in the capillary circulation of the blood, in the exquisite complexity of mitotic division in the root-tip of an onion, in the development of the chick embryo. These may all be taught as facts with descriptive drawings and long names and though the world would recognize this as knowledge the child will be no wiser than if we substituted for this information rules of French grammar. But if once, only once, he has seen beyond the mass of jelly on his slide or the interlacing red lines in the goldfish's tail, then he will be different and his judgments, his tastes, his "self" twenty years later will be determined, perhaps only to the slightest degree, yet still determined, by that experience in the classroom.

And lastly, if we would teach biology as a way of life we must provide not only an emotional but also a "spiritual driving force." As Julian Huxley says, "Science has two inherent limitations. First, it is incomplete, or perhaps I had better say partial, just because it only concerns itself with in-

tellectual handling and objective control. And secondly, it is morally and emotionally neutral. It sets out to describe and to understand, not to appraise nor to assign values. Indeed, science is without value; the only value which it recognizes is that of truth and knowledge." But there are higher values—those subtle products and by-products which will be apprehended by those who see beyond these limitations of science. Putting a tool into the hands of a craftsman does not necessitate the fashioning of an object; unless he realizes the need for an object or is inspired to the creation of one, his tool will lie idle; unless he has a scale of values, his tool may be used but there will be no ultimate gain from his contribution. Unless we as teachers have a philosophy of education and of life which is constantly uppermost in our minds, our pupils will not be materially altered nor shall we have the satisfaction of seeing spiritual alchemy transform the commonplace in life into expressions of power and of vision.

COMMENCEMENT IN MADISON, NEW JERSEY

EDWIN VAN KEUREN

EDITOR'S NOTE: *At commencement many adults of the community participate vicariously in the activities of the school that are represented there. In this article Mr. Van Keuren, principal of the Madison, N.J., High School, describes a senior class and faculty project by which youths and adults were helped to appreciate the progressive functioning of public education.*

P. W. L. C.

IN JUNE, 1931, Madison High School presented a strikingly unique commencement program. Its general theme was based on one of the seven objectives as stated in the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education—Citizenship. Our program took the form of a dramatization of how the people of our community have expressed their citizenship through one particular medium—their support of public education.

Some time ago our Superintendent of Schools, Harry A. Wann, discovered, or,

perhaps, more accurately rediscovered, the original record book containing the minutes of the earliest meetings of the "Boards of Trustees" of the school of Madison. It was he who originally conceived the idea of the utilization of such records in our commencement program. He also furnished the early inspiration and guidance in the formation of our plans.

With a broad, general view of what the program might be, a joint volunteer committee of faculty and students enthusi-

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astically went to work on the details. After much discussion and deliberation, a dramatization comprising four acts was projected.

Act I pictured a meeting "of the Employers of the School of Bottle Hill in 1803." (Bottle Hill was the name given to the original settlement, the name being changed to Madison during the presidential administration of James Madison.) The time 1803 was selected because it was the date of the earliest records of school board meetings.

Act II portrayed a public meeting in 1890, the purpose of which was to indicate the way in which public approval or disapproval of the acts of the Board of Trustees was made manifest.

Act III showed a meeting of the Student Council of High School as it actually exists, indicating the way in which our students today, manifest good qualities of citizenship by reason of their participation in conducting the business of the school.

Act IV was a projection into the future of what our teachers and students felt our public education would be like in 1950.

Having set up the framework of our project, the next step was an elaboration of the details. We had taken as one of our major objectives the active participation of every member of the graduating class and of the faculty in the project. With that in mind, the work of each act was laid out with the appointment of several committees, each one to be responsible for a particular job. For example, in each of acts I, II, and IV a research committee, a costume committee, a property committee, and a playright or dramatization committee were appointed with student chairmen and one or more faculty members as guides and counselors for each. In act III, the student council scene, a dramatization committee was all that was needed. This committee was able to prepare all the lines in the act from the material contained in the minutes of the secretary of the student council.

As plans developed and committees began to function, not only the whole school, but the community in general, became tremendously interested. The aid and advice of a score or more adults was sought and gladly given. Especially were the members of the local historical society helpful, not only supplying valuable first-hand information and data but also providing costumes and stage furnishings, or using their influence in securing such properties from others.

After the research committees had gathered together an abundance of data, the dramatization committees cast it into presentation form. Necessarily the membership on these two committees overlapped considerably. When the dramatization was completed, the costume and property committee gathered the properties necessary for appropriate settings. With the final completion of the dramatization, it was placed in the hands of a faculty committee, headed by our dramatics teacher, which assigned the parts. Of the fifty-four members in the class, forty-five had speaking parts, while the remaining nine were used as stage and property hands or extras.

If space permitted we should like to reproduce the entire four acts as they were presented. Act I and Act IV are of such significance that we shall present them almost in their entirety.

MILESTONES

Madison's Adventure in Citizenship

FIRST MILESTONE—1803

"A meeting of the employers of the school of Bottle Hill was holden at the home of Reverend Perrine at early candle lighting, April 18, 1803."

Those present were:

PRISCILLA
REV. PERRINE
MRS. PERRINE
LUKE MILLER
MRS. MILLER

AARON BURNETT
MRS. BURNETT
BENJAMIN PIERSON
WILLIAM MARTIN
LOTT HAMILTON

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SCENE: Reverend Perrine's Kitchen.

TIME: Seven o'clock, April 18, 1803.

SETTING: Mrs. Perrine is filling teakettle and arranging furniture.

PRISCILLA. Mamma, is Jane coming tonight?

MRS. PERRINE [*scandalized*]. Mercy no! Why this won't be over till 8.30—long past your bedtime. Besides, this is a very important meeting. Little children couldn't come.

PRISCILLA. Mother, may I stay up for the meeting, please?

MRS. PERRINE. Gracious, no. Perhaps your father will let you stay up until they come.

REV. PERRINE [*enters, fetches wood, and pokes fire*]. The chill is still in the air, remarkable for this time of the year. I'd best poke up this fire before they come.

PRISCILLA. Father, may I please stay up? May I stay up until the meeting begins?

REV. PERRINE. No, child, you must go to bed as soon as you hear them at the door.

PRISCILLA [*looks anxiously out of the window*]. Here comes some one with a lantern and it is Mr. Miller and Mr. Burnett and Mrs. Miller and Mrs. Burnett are with them. [*Goes to her father and mother, kisses them, and exits.*]

REV. PERRINE [*goes to door and looks out*]. So it is—there's Luke and Aaron and the missus. Well, Ma, you'll have company for the evening; also remember, I want you ladies to be quiet this time. [*Enter Luke Miller, Aaron Burnett, and wives. Mrs. Miller and Mrs. Burnett bustle off to Mrs. Perrine and kiss her.*]

MRS. PERRINE. I'm so glad you came, Keziah. How is the darling baby, Mirandy? [*Taking her wraps.*]

MRS. MILLER. She had rather a bad attack last night, but Luke fixed her up. [*Mrs. Perrine takes wraps; women gossip, fade into background.*]

MEN [*entering, shake hands*]. Evening, Dominie.

REV. PERRINE. Evening, folks. Enter, gentlemen, the others will be here at any minute. [*Voices heard outside.*] [*Benjamin Pierson, William Martin, and Lott Hamilton, the school teacher, enter.*]

REV. PERRINE. Enter, gentlemen.

BENJ. PIERSON. We stopped by for Howell, but he has to tend a sick mare.

MILLER. Well, we have a quorum, anyway, and there is important business.

REV. PERRINE. Let's commence. Draw up your chairs and we'll sit 'round the table. [*Men draw up their chairs, Perrine facing audience. Before sitting, Rev. Perrine offers a prayer—ladies sitting right bow heads. Perrine to Luke Miller.*] Get your minutes out there, Luke.

MILLER (*rising and reading*). February 14, 1803. The directors met as the constitution directed. All present. Reverend Perrine was chosen both moderator and treasurer. Luke Miller as clerk. It was unanimously agreed that the following rules should be adopted:

1. There shall be public examination of the scholars at the expiration of every quarter.
2. The teacher shall catechize the scholars at least once every week.
3. Every scholar that is capable shall read at least once each day from the Bible.
4. Every scholar who is capable shall write a letter of his own composition at least once every week which shall be either inspected or corrected by the teacher.
5. Mr. Martin and Mr. Howell were appointed to visit the school on the first Monday in March.
6. Mr. Burnett and Mr. Miller were appointed a committee to wait on hiring an additional teacher to be tried for a month. [*A notice was to be put in the Morris Town paper that a teacher was wanting.*]

REV. PERRINE. Anything forgot, folks? Aaron, let's have your report on hiring an additional school teacher.

BURNETT. Well, my boy took the notice up the next day. I haven't received any replies, but I'll try again.

HAMILTON [*rising*]. Mr. Moderator, may I speak? [*Rev. Perrine nods.*] If the directors have no one in mind, I should like to recommend my sister for the position. She has not only had exceptional schooling in reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also can recite Revelations from beginning to end.

REV. How do you gentlemen feel on this matter?

MARTIN. I think that's a very good idea. Miss Hamilton must be very well prepared.

PIERSON. I think we ought to try her, too.

[*Much talking from corner where women are.*] Voice says, "And the newest one's have ribbons on." [*Icy stares from the men at the women.*]

REV. What do you think, Luke? [*nods*] and you, Aaron? [*nods*] All right, Mr. Hamilton, will you please notify your sister that we shall try her for a month?

HAMILTON. Thank you, gentlemen. I'm sure you won't regret the appointment of my sister.

REV. Well, how did you find things at the school on Monday?

MARTIN. Things look pretty good, but the wood was rather low and the school needs a fire for the chilly weather.

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MARTIN. A pane of glass was badly cracked; in fact, I don't think it will last until next year. There is only one extra desk and two of the three new scholars have no desks. We will have to have a new one made for next year. The new teacher will have to have a desk and chair, too. I guess that's about all.

REV. *[looking into crock on table]*. We have just six cents in the treasury. That will buy just enough wood, but we haven't paid Mr. Hamilton this month's salary yet. I will forward his salary and it can be paid back next quarter.

BURNETT. With all these additional expenses and a shortage besides, I think we will have to consider an increase in tuition.

REV. We'll certainly have to have more money for next year. That's a good suggestion, Aaron. Heretofore, the rate has been five cents per pupil a quarter. We would have to raise it to six cents perhaps.

PIERSON. It seems as though we'll have to.

MILLER. There's Abe, he couldn't pay any increase, especially with the high cost of books. That would be twenty cents extra for him.

MARTIN. We have never had to pay more than five cents.

REV. Can you suggest any other way to meet the expenses?

MARTIN. Well, no.

REV. Are you then all in favor of raising the tuition one cent a quarter or four cents a year? How about it, Luke, Aaron, Will, Ben? *[Nods of assent from each in turn.]* Well, then, it's unanimously carried in the affirmative that the tuition be six cents each quarter. *[Reaches in crock and pulls out six cents—hands it to Hamilton.]* Mr. Hamilton, here is six cents to purchase wood for the rest of the year. Aaron and Ben, you visit the school next month. Is there anything else we should discuss, Luke?

MILLER. No. *[Each shakes his head.]*

REV. I will notify you when the next meeting will be holden. *[Looks over to his wife as he pushes back chair; addresses her.]* Have you anything for these folks?

MRS. FERRINE. Yes, everything is ready.

[She pours water into the teapot and hands cakes to Mirandy and Keziah who give them to the men.]

Curtain

FOURTH MILESTONE—1950

"The Board of Education met February 15, 1950, in their new quarters in the Regal Office Building, Corner of Waverly and Main Streets.

Reports were given of the work of the Executive and Staff Officers for the year. The following were present:

PRESIDENT OF BOARD
MEMBERS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
DISTRICT CLERK
STUDENT REPRESENTATIVE"

SCENE: *Modern office, 1950.*

PRESIDENT. The meeting will please come to order. May we have the minutes of the last meeting?

CLERK. Last regular meeting was held on February 15, 1950. The minutes were approved as read. Recommendation to hook up with central television system made by Superintendent of Schools. Owing to the inadequacy of equipment now in use the Superintendent was asked to investigate cost and report at next meeting.

The Board passed a resolution to add a psychiatrist to the medical staff in the school clinic. The attendance report showed a lower percentage of absences in the schools than at any time for the past three years.

It was noted also that since the compulsory school age has been increased from 16 to 18 years, more boys and girls have been graduating from the high school. *[Notices of the coming school election have been posted announcing the election of two new Board members, and an appropriation for next year of \$650,000 for current expenses.]*

BOARD MEMBER. Quite a fair-sized appropriation as compared with the money spent on Madison Schools when we were youngsters. But, then, the population of this town has almost tripled in the past twenty years. *[To superintendent]* Just how many have we on roll at present?

SUPERINTENDENT. 3,478 in all eight buildings. The Junior High School has the largest enrollment with 928 children on roll.

PRESIDENT. May we have the report of the Superintendent of Grounds?

CLERK. As has been noticed in the past, the town landing field has become quite inadequate for the needs of the high school. This inadequacy is becoming constantly more apparent. Visitors from the State department of education call frequently, and it is often impossible for them to find landing space. It is recommended that the Board consider the purchase of property adjoining the high school that we may have our own landing field.

SUPERINTENDENT. If this were possible it would be much more convenient for the planes which take our students to the county vocational schools.

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At present much time is lost in their meeting at the town landing field almost a mile from the school.

BOARD MEMBER. That is an expensive proposition and I doubt whether we have enough need of a landing field to warrant the outlay of money. Are there so many students attending the county vocational school?

SUPERINTENDENT. Yes, there are at present 212 students in the vocational school and some are electing courses for next year which will oblige us to send them to neighboring counties, depending upon the type of vocational training they choose. It is necessary for the student to be near the field of industry he is studying—such as ceramics near Perth Amboy and Trenton, agriculture near the State Experiment Station, textiles near Paterson, etc.

BOARD MEMBER. Getting the field in shape would be comparatively reasonable as it would be for daytime use only. It is that composition which absorbs the sun's rays during the day and sends out lights at night that is so costly, and we should not need that of course; the real-estate value of the property itself is worth about \$80,000, I should judge.

ANOTHER BOARD MEMBER. Quite a long step we've come in the past twenty or twenty-five years. The old bus that ran to Florham Park seemed pretty good to us; and our fathers, in their horse and buggy days, thought the automobile an expensive freak that would not last. But it's great to live in this age when so much is happening.

PRESIDENT. Will Mr. Mathews and Mr. Donaldson please investigate this matter of a new landing field and report on it at our next meeting? Please continue the report you were reading.

CLERK. Window panes are occasionally knocked out by boys playing games in the rear of the building, thus upsetting the central ventilation system until the panes are replaced. It is recommended that guards be placed on these windows as it is useless to have unmovable windows whose panes can be knocked out.

Respectfully submitted,
Superintendent of Grounds

PRESIDENT. Will the committee on grounds please give this matter their attention. Mr. Miller, will you give us the medical report please?

MR. MILLER [a Board Member]. The report of the medical staff states that: In connection with the clinic, twelve cases of malnutrition have been taken care of by the school. The children get all of their meals at the clinic, and are responding to the diet and improving rapidly.

Two operations were successfully performed last month at school expense—one for tonsils and the other for appendicitis.

The dentist reports that school training in correct dental habit and fifteen years of dental work in our school clinic are now showing results. Tooth and gum defects are noticeably decreasing. The health program has been strongly emphasized in the first four grades, as it is felt that there health habits are formed. The student body has been examined by the nurses and it is reported that 72 per cent have normal health with no physical defects apparent.

PRESIDENT. A very gratifying report. Mrs. Phillips, have you a report from the physical-education department?

MRS. PHILLIPS. Today we consider it as important that a girl have erect graceful carriage as that she have a reading knowledge of French, and as important that a boy have straight shoulders and a strong back as that he have a knowledge of trigonometry. Health habits are not only taught but practised. Games are played in our school that adults as well as boys and girls love to play—not contests to decide the winner so much as games played for the fun in the game itself.

With the longer school day, our attention, as outlined in our extracurricular program, is focused on the value of health habits and we feel that we at last have time to accomplish a long-felt need in education. We are now graduating from our schools citizens trained in physical as well as mental habits.

PRESIDENT. Are there any other reports before we hear that of the superintendent of schools?

SUPERINTENDENT. The president of our High School Student Council has a report from the student body which she asks permission to give at this meeting.

PRESIDENT. We shall be glad to hear it.

STUDENT REPRESENTATIVE. I am pleased to report that the response of the students towards the honor system is, on the whole, most gratifying. On behalf of the student body I should like to thank the Board and the school administration for granting our petition to lengthen the school day. It is possible now, with longer periods and supervised study, to have practically all studying done in school. This gives us time after school for many outside activities sponsored by private organizations but coöperating with the school in their general program. The cafeteria is serving fine lunches. The incorporation of many good courses of recreation give us time during the day for play and relaxation. There is scarcely a student in school who is not a member of some

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athletic team. About half of the high-school students belong to some musical organization—orchestra, band, or glee club. Then we have about a dozen other clubs, some of the most important of which are the Nature Lovers' Club, Moving Picture Society, Dramatic Club, and Travel Club. This gives us all a chance to ride our favorite hobby during school hours. We want the Board to know that we appreciate what they are doing for us.

PRESIDENT. You may tell the student body that the Board is very happy to be of service. We are always interested in what the boys and girls are doing. Now may we have the report of the superintendent of schools?

SUPERINTENDENT. In connection with the extra-curricular program, I am pleased to report that club activities within the high school are resulting in very worth-while achievements. In our art and literature clubs, especially, we have produced some fine examples of creative ability. The furniture designs, too, as turned out in our county manual-arts department are worthy of attention. Many specimens made by Madison boys are now on display in the museum room of the public library. When I look back on the progress in secondary education made in the past twenty years, I am compelled to admit that I once considered impossible what we are now accomplishing. For one thing we have left behind the idea that schools can function only nine and one half to ten months of the year. That idea began in the days when farmers needed their sons in the summer harvest field. Today large numbers of our students are enrolled in church vacation schools, others in camps controlled by the school, getting their natural-science information at first hand and still others may be found in various buildings where special summer courses are conducted all during the months of July and August. I am urging again that the Board arrange for a hook-up with the central television system, as one television apparatus now in use is quite out-of-date. For example, twice last week we were obliged to cut off because both pictures and speeches were blurred: once, when the prime minister of England was addressing Parliament and once when the president of China was inaugurated. Both of these were programs needed in our course on international relations.

I am pleased to report that our motion-picture class has taken over one hundred pictures to send to foreign schools. There have been so many more demands for pictures of the activities of our boys and girls than in previous years. The interest of school boys and girls of all nations in one another is growing.

BOARD MEMBER. We are spending too much money on this sort of foolishness. It is this sort of thing that is increasing the budget so tremendously. We can find much better use for our money.

OTHER MEMBER OF BOARD. I disagree with that sentiment. I advocate the improvement of the picture department and the advancement of the international picture-exchanging idea. If the great aim of education is training for citizenship, we must not overlook one of the most important phases of this work—training in international friendship. We cannot limit our interests to the boundaries of our own country. In our fathers' day to be a good American citizen one needed to be interested only in the United States. In the days of their fathers and grandfathers to be loyal to one's State or section was sufficient. But all that is past. We must think not in terms of the United States alone but of the entire world, and to train our boys in loyalty to the United States is not enough, if at the same time we are not training them in friendship towards the people of all other nations.

PRESIDENT. Thank you, Mrs. Phillips. I think you have expressed the sentiments of the majority of the citizens of our community.

Curtain

Perhaps it might not be amiss to attempt an evaluation of our own program.

1. It was the students' program—one which they had a share in preparing and presenting, not one in which they were passive, inert participants.
2. It presented an opportunity for every student to enter whole-heartedly and zestfully into that program which, in the mind of the student, is the most significant and most important of his entire school career.
3. It presented a splendid opportunity for getting over to the general public some important aspects of the plans and policies of the present school administration without labelling them as such.
4. It created such public interest and demand for tickets was so great that it was decided to present only the play the night before "Commencement" to

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accommodate every one. Both nights the house was packed. On "Commencement Night" the stage was cleared after Act IV, the entire class assembled on the stage in conventional cap and gown, and the formal presentation of diplomas was made in the conventional manner.

In response to letters to patrons requesting expressions of their opinions regarding

the program, one typical reply is quoted:

No matter how eloquent and scholarly a speaker may be, to a student his manner is bombastic, his words are mere cant.

The audience, if I mistake not, was thrilled by the spirited manner in which the whole program was carried off.

It must, too, have given a new zeal and impetus to those teachers who were in any way connected with it.

May we never again go back to the old stereotyped form of commencement.

GUIDANCE AT WORK IN A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

HAROLD R. MAURER

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Maurer, of the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Uniontown, Pennsylvania, has written this article as one in the series being edited by Earle Rugg. The series deals with the "solution of problems by concerted action."

F. E. L.

THERE are few administrators or teachers who would insist that a secondary school is merely a place for the reciting of lessons or the doing of tasks. Its broader service is most certainly revealed in its ability to create situations for the development of the desirable personal attributes of its students. School is not a preparation for life; it is life in a very real sense, and we cannot hope to train students for adult life unless we have within the school situations that are typical of adult life. The guidance movement places emphasis upon the ideal of training students for citizenship in a democracy. With this point of view established, it becomes increasingly evident that teachers of the modern school must keep that element uppermost in their minds rather than adopting an easier method of arbitrarily disposing of matters in which the students are concerned.

The faculty of the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School in Uniontown has definitely committed itself to the thesis that the guidance of youth is its major function, and a conscious effort is being made to make every resource of the school available for

this all-important work. This paper is submitted with the hope that a brief description of the organization effected in this school for this work may prove suggestive to others interested in projecting guidance programs in their schools.

A moment of serious contemplation will convince one that the guidance of youth is a prodigious task of such infinite complexity that it surpasses the knowledge of any one agency working independently. It is strictly a coöperative enterprise, and as such must have the intelligent and sympathetic interest of the teachers, patrons, and the pupils themselves. In reviewing our accomplishments, it appears that this consideration is basic and of paramount importance because, obviously, much of the work incident to the project must be assumed by the homeroom counselors and the classroom teachers, and the success of the plan is contingent upon their willing and enthusiastic participation. For the principal of the school or any other administrative officer to assume the rôle of personal counselor of pupils would indeed be a signal for the teachers and counselors to evade the responsibility

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which they might better shoulder. It is rather the function of the principal and other administrative officers to coordinate the various guidance agencies within the school. Think of schools in which the guidance project has been inaugurated and failed and, quite likely, you will be thinking of schools in which the responsibility for the consummation of the program was assumed by the principal or some one agency indicated by him.

With this first step defined, the question naturally presents itself as to how the necessary faculty response may be elicited. At the very start, we were especially fortunate in securing Dr. D. H. Sikenberry of Ohio State University for two of our institute sessions. Dr. Eikenberry is a recognized leader in the guidance field, and in his two talks before our teachers he emphasized the need of a definitely organized program of guidance. We are indebted to him for a prospectus of guidance manuals projected for grades seven to twelve inclusive. Some of these manuals have already been edited by our teachers; others are being developed at the present time. His visit was followed by a series of carefully planned faculty seminar meetings in which every teacher in the school was assigned some very definite part. Committees were appointed, suggestions made, recommendations and resolutions followed, and the program was well under way. Mention has been made of the guidance monographs edited by the teachers. A number of these have been completed and are now in use. They will, of course, be subject to constant revision from year to year. The following titles are suggestive of their content:

SEVENTH-GRADE GUIDANCE MANUALS

- Unit I How We Can Profit Most from Our Homerooms
- Units II How We Can Profit Most from Our Libraries
- Unit III How We Can Profit Most from Our Subjects of Instruction

- Unit IV How We Can Profit Most from Our School Clubs
- Unit V How We Can Profit Most from Our School Publications
- Unit VI How We Can Profit Most from Our Assemblies
- Unit VII How We Can Profit Most from Our Games and Sports
- Unit VIII How We Can Profit Most from Our Student Council
- Unit IX How We Can Profit Most from Our School Activities

EIGHTH-GRADE GUIDANCE MANUALS

- Unit I The Importance of Staying in School
- Units II to V Educational Opportunities
- Unit VI Our Local Opportunities
- Unit VII Choosing the Course

NINTH-GRADE GUIDANCE MANUALS

- Unit I The Organization of Our Senior High School
- Unit II to VIII The Senior High School and Its Curricula
- Unit IX Extra-Curricular Activity Program of the Senior High School
- Unit X Our Individual Curricula for the Senior High School

The editing of these manuals necessarily entailed a considerable amount of research work and investigation on the part of the teachers. The monographs, when completed, are made available for the teachers and pupils in the grades for which they are intended. They are then used as a basis for discussions and committee reports planned for the homeroom and guidance periods each week. One of the chief merits of this plan is found in the fact that the teachers themselves are made responsible for the assembling of the material presented. The faculty becomes *guidance conscious*; a genuine enthusiasm for the work is forthcoming. We find that our most successful work is accomplished in situations in which the students and teachers work together as partners in matters which are of immediate concern to both.

During the semester just passed, we have

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made a serious attempt to follow out the recommendations of our superintendent, Milton D. Proctor, in the matter of home visitation. The school organization necessary for this work was effected by our guidance committee. The home-visitation project had the unqualified endorsement and support of every homeroom counselor and classroom teacher because it was recognized that such visitation was essential for the proper counseling of our students. The faculty adopted this slogan at the beginning of the year: "The home of every resident student visited by a teacher before the Christmas holidays." Homeroom counselors were offered assistance in this work, but it is estimated that ninety-five per cent of the home contacts were made by the counselors themselves. This in itself is an accurate index of their serious intent in doing this task well.

Each teacher was asked to file a formal report of the home visits with the guidance committee. These reports, together with the teacher's recommendations, were reviewed carefully, and in all cases which demanded further treatment the forms were referred to the department or subject teacher concerned. Many of the existing maladjustments were, of course, discovered and after they were remedied a better understanding was made possible between the school and the home. Counselors, in making these visits, learned much about the attitudes of parents towards school policies, the economic status of the home, and the general home atmosphere in which the student lived. These facts, as well as others, naturally assume their proper perspective in the teacher's analysis of the student's behavior problems in the school. It is interesting to note in passing that the time of the individual visits ranged from five minutes to two hours. The average time for a visit

was approximately thirty minutes. The visits were not made in a half-hearted or perfunctory manner, because it was not obligatory for a counselor or teacher to engage in this work. In almost every instance, the teacher was graciously received and assured of parental coöperation.

The foregoing discussion serves to emphasize the fact that the first agency, and it might be added the basic one, in our guidance program is the homeroom counselor. No other agency in the school is so well informed concerning the personal attributes to the students as is the counselor. The relationship existing between the student and the counselor is unique. It must, perforce, be admitted that certain of the student's teachers may discover facts with which the counselor is not acquainted, but when these items are made known and any revision of the student's schedule appears necessary, the counselors fund of information about the student is considered the determining factor. Psychologists are insistent that the subtler side of the pupil's personality does not reveal itself through interviews or conferences, but rather through situations. The counselor, by virtue of his day-by-day contact with the student, is at all times fully aware of these situations as they arise. His fund of information about the student enables him to make a fair analysis of the student's difficulties, and it is in this way that our most effective counseling is made possible.

This article has confined itself to a discussion of but two of our guidance projects. There are many others which might be accorded similar treatment. It is hoped that this treatise will be highly suggestive of what is being done and what can be accomplished by other schools interested in the possibilities of such a program.

THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF NINE, 1911

CALVIN O. DAVIS

EDITOR'S NOTE: This is the fifth article in the series dealing with the work of important committees on secondary education. This committee is often called the "Committee on Articulation." A later paper will consider the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education (1918).

F. E. L.

THE first secondary schools in America were college preparatory—the Latin grammar schools. Then came the academies, offering as a rule a wide range of studies leading in one of two directions—to college on the one hand, to life on the other. The third great movement in secondary education started in 1821 as the modern high school and at first turned its attention completely away from college thoughts.

However, with the increase of wealth and leisure among its constituents, the high school of 1821 gradually took on college-preparatory notions and ideals. Indeed, within fifty years, that is by 1871, the college-preparatory course or curriculum was the dominating one. Then business or practical interests reasserted their claims and for a short space of time the two influences moved along at nearly equal rates. In 1893 the famous Report of the Committee of Ten came from the press. This Report, though in some of its statements purporting to be especially concerned with the welfare of the youth who had no intent of entering college, nevertheless, in its total effect, strengthened greatly the control of college interests within the high school.

Following 1893, the development of secondary education in America was exceedingly rapid. This was the period that gave rise to the six-year high school and its offshoot, the junior high school; this was the time when adolescent psychology, educational sociology, and comparative pedagogy arose and developed powerfully; this was the time when the secondary-school people themselves began to feel irksome under what they pleased to regard as college domination and illiberality; this was the time when hundreds of youths poured into the

secondary school from social and economic classes that heretofore rarely, if ever, had sought an education above that represented by the elementary grades; this was the time when newer and newer subjects clamored for admission to the secondary-school curriculum and in consequence forced the extension of the principle of course or curriculum elections.

Out of this turmoil of conflicting forces and struggling ideals appeared from time to time great national educational commissions or committees charged with the duty of studying various aspects of the problem. The first of these (as stated) was the Committee of Ten. Later came the Committee of Fifteen, the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, the Committee on Cultural Elements and Economy of Time in Education, and several others.

By the year 1910 the curriculum confusion in secondary schools had become so great and the conflicting demands of collegiate and of noncollegiate constituencies had reached so acute a stage that the secondary-school people themselves deemed it wise and necessary to endeavor to bring order out of the chaos. In consequence, in that year another notable national committee was appointed to deal, in particular, with the question of articulation between high school and college. This committee owes its existence to what was then called the Secondary Department of the National Education Association. It was headed by Mr. Clarence D. Kingsley, at that time a teacher in the Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, New York. The other members of the committee were: William M. Butler, principal, Yeatman High School, St. Louis, Missouri; Frank B. Dyer, superintendent of schools,

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Cincinnati, Ohio; Charles W. Evans, principal of High School, East Orange, New Jersey; Charles H. Judd, professor of education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois; Alexis F. Lange, dean of college faculties, University of California, Berkeley, California; W. D. Lewis, principal of William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; William Orr, deputy State commissioner of education, Boston, Massachusetts; W. H. Smiley, principal of East Eide High School, Denver, Colorado.

This Committee of Nine made its report at the National Education Association in 1911, its findings and recommendations being printed in the *Proceedings of the National Education Association*.¹ Most of the ideas voiced here later became incorporated in expanded form in the various reports of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education which took over the work of the Committee of Nine and functioned actively from 1911 to 1923 or later.

The Committee of Nine opens its report by referring to a resolution passed by the department at the time of its annual meeting in Boston the year previous (1910). By this resolution colleges were called upon to discontinue the practice of holding to the common requirement of two foreign languages for admission and were urged to recognize as electives offered for admission "all subjects well taught in the high school." Further, the resolution of 1910 declared that the public high schools would be "greatly hampered in their attempt to serve the best interests of boys and girls until such modification is made by the colleges."

The Report of the Committee of Nine then states that the resolution of 1910 was adopted with but one dissenting vote, that the existing committee had been appointed in accordance with the spirit of those resolutions, and that it conceived its functions to

be "to prepare a rational statement of the work that the high school should do."

In order to carry out the purposes for which it was established, the Committee submitted the results of its deliberations under three main headings; namely,

A. Some preliminary considerations on the field and functions of education in the high school

B. A working definition of a well-planned high-school course

C. Reasons for the adoption of the definition as a basis of college education

Under division A the Committee presented five "considerations," as follows:

First, it quoted Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, president of the Carnegie Foundation, as saying in his annual report that "American education, from elementary school to college, is suffering from the attempt to teach too many subjects to the same student at the same time." Dr. Pritchett was further quoted as saying that while he was not opposed to having the high school enrich its curriculum by the addition of new subjects he did believe that students taking the newer subjects "should not be required to carry all the older subjects . . . [and] that it is the duty of the college to adjust itself to the high school thus broadened."

Here clearly the Committee sought to use the judgments of a powerful policy-shaping agency to establish the premise that the burden of responsibility for educational reforms in the secondary schools rested with the colleges and that those institutions should adjust themselves to the high schools rather than that the high schools should be expected further to adjust themselves to the traditional regulations of the colleges.

Second, the Committee declared that, in its opinion, "it is the duty of tax-supported schools to give to every student instruction carefully designed to return to society intelligent, able-bodied, and progressive citizens." "To this end," continues the state-

¹ Secondary Department, 1911, pp. 559-567.

ment, "certain work should be included in every course [curriculum] of every student whether or not he contemplates entering a higher institution."

In division B of its report, the Committee states in some detail what these common integrating elements ought, in its judgment, to be. These are: three units of English, one unit of social science (including history), one unit of natural science, and "systematic physical training." In particular, the Committee stresses the desirability of including courses in economics and community civics in every curriculum, pleading its case as follows: "Every high-school student should be given a practical knowledge of affairs in his own community—political, industrial, philanthropic; of the basic principles of State and national politics; and of the movements for social reform and international peace."

Twenty years have gone by since these words were written but it would be a fair question to ask whether current practices meet at all adequately the standards set up by the Committee in this respect.

In section three of division A of its report the Committee lends its complete support to the ideas which were at that time giving birth to the junior-high-school movement. It especially goes on record as upholding the view that secondary education—not only in its early years but, in a sense, throughout its entire period—is an exploratory agency, a time for testing the powers, interests, and capacities of pupils in many different ways and in many different forms of human endeavor. This view was supported not alone in respect to general or cultural education but also in respect to vocational life. To these ends the Committee held that "opportunity should be provided the student to test his capacity in a fairly large number of relatively diverse kinds of work," that the forming of life purposes should be encouraged, and that every boy and girl might very properly be given a start

along the line of a chosen vocation. However, the Committee was unanimously opposed to making the high school a finishing trade school or in having it shape its instruction so as to encourage students to make irrevocable vocational choices too early in life. Any choices that were made in the earlier grades should, the Committee held, be regarded merely as provisional and should be open to complete revision, if need be, in later years of the school course. To this end, the Committee took the ground that it is wholly indefensible for colleges to require four years of preparatory work in any particular subject "unless that subject be one that may properly be required of all high-school students." The Committee, therefore, requested all institutions of higher learning to discontinue such practices immediately.

Many institutions of higher learning were, of course, already practising the principles here advocated. No doubt, too, in some other quarters the recommendations were accepted with favor and soon adopted. But in many sections of the country it is evident the proposals fell upon stone-deaf ears.

In its plea for giving greater recognition in the schools to such subjects as mechanic arts, household science, and agriculture, the report charged that "under the authority of the traditional conception of the best preparation for a higher institution many of our public high schools are today responsible for leading tens of thousands of boys and girls away from pursuits for which they are adapted and in which they are needed to other pursuits for which they are not adapted and in which they are not needed." "By means of exclusively bookish curricula," continues the argument, "false ideals of culture are developed [and] a chasm is created between the producers of material wealth and the distributors and consumers thereof." The Committee, therefore, advocated the inclusion of these sub-

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jects (mechanic arts, household science, and agriculture) "as rational elements in the education of all boys and girls, and especially of those who had not as yet chosen their vocation."

No doubt this appeal did have some effect in shaping the curriculum in the grades of the late elementary and junior high schools. Whether it bore much fruit in the senior high school is open to question.

In seeking to establish "A Working Definition of a Well-Planned High-School Course"—the task attempted in the second division of the report—the Committee gave its support to several policies which since that time have come to be commonly accepted practices among most reputable colleges and universities. Among these practices are the following:

1. Requiring but fifteen units of high-school work for college admission, not including "physical training and chorus singing."
2. Disapproving the practice of admitting to college students "weighed down with conditions"—a practice which was declared to be unfair to the high school, the college, and the student himself.
3. Requiring in every high-school curriculum "the completion of two majors of three units each and one minor of two units—and one of the majors should be English."
4. Prescribing that of the fifteen units required for graduation not less than eleven should consist of English, foreign languages, mathematics, social studies, natural science, "or other work conducted by recitation and home study."

Some of the other recommendations made in this section of the report have not been so fully accepted as the four given above. Thus, for example, the Committee declares that "the requirement in mathematics and foreign language should not exceed two units in mathematics and two units in one foreign language other than English." True, large numbers of high schools now do adhere to this principle in determining the requirements for graduation, and likewise numerous colleges set

these standards as the maximum admission requirements in the two fields mentioned. However, there surely are enough exceptions to the practice among both high schools and colleges to make the proposals far from being the universal law which the Committee hoped to have established.

Again, after specifying in some detail what should be the character of the eleven fixed or constant units, the Committee held that "the other four units should be left as a margin to be used for additional academic work or for mechanic arts, household science, commercial work, and other kinds of work that the best interest of the student appears to require." Further, the Committee contends that "no limitation should be imposed upon the use of the margin except that the instruction should be given by competent teachers with suitable equipment in classes not too large and that the student's work should be of satisfactory grade."

In its third division of the report, the Committee seeks to justify its previous recommendations by reiterating, in part, some of its earlier views and by presenting illustrative material in the form of quotations taken, for the most part, from other printed reports or from the published addresses of prominent educators. These summarizing principles may be paraphrased as follows:

1. College admission should be based solely upon the completion of a well-planned high-school course.
2. Many apt students do not go to college merely because they realize too late that they took courses in the high school which, although dictated by their aptitudes and needs, are not accepted for college admission.
3. "The idea that a student should, early in his high-school course, decide whether he is going to college ignores one of the chief functions of the high school; namely, that of inspiring capable students with the desire for further education." Further, "... the chief characteristic of education in a democracy as contrasted with that in a society dominated by class distinctions, is the principle of the 'open door.'"
4. The attempt to supplement the work re-

quired by colleges for admission with additional work demanded by the interests of the community and by an adequate understanding of the needs of boys and girls is "highly unsatisfactory." The Committee then offers quotations taken from the Report of the High School Teachers Association of New York to substantiate its contentions.

5. Even when students follow faithfully the usual college prescriptions, they are not the best prepared for admission to college—a contention that is bolstered by the figures given out by Abraham Flexner in his book, *The American College*.

6. "In the attempt to prepare for the widely varying requirements of different colleges, the energies of the school are dissipated"—this statement being a direct challenge to the colleges to stop their attempt to set up independent standards for the high school to meet and to get together in a coöperative manner and work out uniform standards.

7. Finally, in its lists of criticisms, the report says: "But by far the most serious objections to the present condition is . . . to be found in the restrictive effect upon the high-school development. The high school today is an arena in which our greatest educational problems should be worked out." The report then mentions the enormous increase in high-school attendance and argues that only as the high school is made free from all college limitations can it fittingly expand and strengthen its position so as to take care, in a worthy manner, of the task of training these young men and women for a progressive democracy.

The finished report, put into final form, no doubt, by its chairman, appears to have been sent to each of the other members of the Committee who affixed their signatures to it. However, in doing so, their sense of obligation seems not to have been satisfied. Consequently, a "Supplementary Report" was drawn up and attached to the main Report. This supplementary document reiterated the fact that the pupil constituency in the high schools had greatly changed and that while some new provisions had been made to take care of this hitherto unschooled body of young people, these changes were not sufficiently complete nor sufficiently suited to meet the situation adequately. In particular

the committee contended that pupils varied greatly in specific abilities. Some, it held, were apt in mathematics but not in foreign languages and vice versa. Consequently, the main body of the report was amended by the supplementary report to read, in part, as follows: "We believe that insistence upon the study of mathematics and foreign language as a *sine qua non* of an education is based largely upon the belief that both are indispensable for intellectual discipline." The validity of this view the committee doubted and hence went on record saying, "In place of either two units of mathematics or two units in foreign language, the substitution, under proper supervision, should be allowed of two units consisting of a second unit in social science (including history) and a second unit of natural science."

To Professor Judd, however, even this new liberal declaration was not liberal enough. In a personal statement he pleaded for even greater latitude in pupil choices. He preferred, he said, to have the various requirements not specific at all in respect to subjects, but to permit candidates seeking admission to college to offer merely "a certain amount of coherent work in the high school" and then to have the pupil continue the sequence in college. He pleaded also for some machinery whereby the high school should follow up the work of pupils in college and the colleges should report to the high schools the achievements of their pupils during the first year or semester in the institution of higher learning.

Just what effect this report had on school practices it is difficult to state. As mentioned previously, many of the proposals made were later incorporated almost verbatim in the pamphlet entitled "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," prepared by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and published in 1918. This is not strange, as Mr. Kingsley was the chairman of both committees and had as-

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sociated with him on the second one some of the individuals who served on the first one. Certain it is that the bulletin "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" has had a profound influence on the thought and practice of school work as is evidenced by the enormous number of copies that have been printed and circulated by the United States Bureau of Education. It seems probable, therefore, that there was a cumulative influence radiating out to the schools of America all the time after 1911 and that much of this is traceable to the Committee reporting in that year. True, not all colleges

in America as yet permit a choice of foreign language or mathematics for admission to their institutions and fewer still waive both these requirements and demand only that a candidate shall present evidence that he has pursued a well-planned, concentrated curriculum in the secondary schools, but there is evidence that the trend is in that direction—certainly among the liberal institutions.

Most good things in this world start from small beginnings and grow by accretions. So it is with school reforms. The work of the Committee on Articulation is an illustration of this fact.

THE EIGHTH ANNUAL JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL CONFERENCE—THE NEW AGE CHALLENGES TEACHING METHODS

JOHN CARR DUFF

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Duff is an instructor in secondary education, New York University. Many of our readers will recall his contribution to the September number.*

E. R. G.

POETRY, allowing more condensation than prose, would be a better medium for giving such a concentrated essence of the Conference as we present here. Space limitations have obliged us to select the items which have the greatest possible interest for readers, omitting much good material. Names of speakers and others participating in the program are not mentioned here but will be supplied on request to any who wish to issue personal challenges or to express active disagreement with ideas expressed. This abstract is in no sense comprehensive. Many of the best talks were given without reference to prepared papers; for these we have no record from which to select excerpts. Valuable opinions expressed in discussions were lost to the record in most cases. Inadequate as this abstract is, it will offer a few stimulating ideas to every reader and is a fair cross-section of the spirit of the Conference.

THE GENERAL CONFERENCES

Three behaviors characterize schoolmen in their reactions to the *Zeitgeist*. The drifters float along with the tide, unconscious of the inevitable day of reckoning that lies just ahead. The opportunist, faced with overcrowding and curtailed budgets, adroitly attempts to lead the members of his faculty to discover for themselves the irrepressible problems and to set themselves the task of dealing positively with them. The way of mastery calls for still another and quite different reaction to the *Zeitgeist*. It is looking beyond the present spirit to that which must surely emerge; it is measuring the great economic and social forces which are discernible and which control tomorrow's *Zeitgeist*. It is shaping the institution in spirit and internal organization so that it anticipates the needs which tomorrow will make felt. After a decade and a half of numbing and stultifying conformity,

we seek for leaders who can challenge, plan, and plead for constructive programs.

The junior high school is particularly fitted to adapt itself to the challenge of the new age. Guidance is the method which best meets the challenge. Education is guidance, and the teacher is the most effective guide, the teacher who is capable of aiding the student to set up for himself "objectives which are dynamic, reasonable, and worth while."

THE ROUND TABLES

Round Table 1—Ability Grouping. Measurement has shown that high performance of one kind does not imply high performance of every other kind, so homogeneity is impossible. So-called homogeneous grouping creates a snobbish aristocracy in school and relieves teachers of obligations to make individual adjustments. Ability grouping by subject seems sound where scheduling permits; even better, perhaps, is random grouping with effective attention to individual capacities and interests. In extracurricular activities entirely heterogeneous as to ability of students participating this plan has repeatedly proved practicable.

Round Table 2—Mental Hygiene's Contribution to Methods. Many graduates of schools have to be reeducated in the sanitarium or the hospital. Teachers must see the whole child and the whole job. An expert in any line has more than specialized knowledge; he has insight into the relation of his specialty to the whole. Likewise, the school must not be insular but a part of the whole community. The visiting teacher interprets the school and promotes adjustment; she interprets behavior rather than merely judges it. The concepts and importance of health must be broadened to place emphasis on mental health, which shows itself in the digestion of the past and in the anticipation of the future. The integration of the personality is promoted by larger educational tasks—units, projects, problems

—rather than piecemeal memoriter learning.

Round Table 3—School Radio—Possibilities and Limitations. In some school districts which are in serious financial difficulties it is being proposed that retrenchment be effected by using the radio to replace many teachers. This is patently absurd to all who know about radio or teaching. Local educational broadcasts have uncharted possibilities, but not as the basis for a complete teaching method. National and international chains now promise increasing aid to education, but we have yet to refine the techniques by which program items can most effectively be used. At present we can develop the habit of "supplementary listening" as we have developed a system of supplementary reading for various subjects.

Round Table 4—Sociology's Contributions to Methods. Sociology contributed the socialized recitation, a great leavener. Most of sociology's contributions to method are indirect. For methods we look to physiology and psychology; we look to sociology for the *what*. Methods are directly associated with purposes. Every method is a best one for its corresponding purpose. Some teachers confuse the means with the ends; they think of teaching methods as ends and assume that if the methods have been good, the purposed learnings have assuredly been accomplished. There is a tendency also to think that some one method is the best method for all purposes. This results in the overwork of some methods because of the herd-tendency to carry a good thing into the ground.

Round Table 5—The School Motion Picture—Possibilities and Limitations. At the present time the silent pictures are more valuable as teaching aids because they are available in a much larger number than talking pictures. The possibilities in sound pictures are being exploited more and more. Providence has installed sound projection

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equipment in both junior and senior high schools. It is apparent that the motion picture is not a method or the basis for a method; it is a device which can be employed profitably in most subjects taught by whatever method. Its possibilities and limitations are analogous to the radio. For both of these we are only beginning to appreciate the possibilities but have not yet worked out the most effective content or methods.

Round Table 6—Methods That Influence Character Growth. Concerning the project method: If project teaching is to lead to the development of a higher type of citizenship and nobler character, it must be so planned and carried through that the individual shall increasingly subordinate immediate desires for more distant goals and his own selfish purposes to the common good of the group. Through discipline to freedom rather than to self-expression must be the underlying philosophy of education and its basic purpose must be to provide situations for the natural interplay of constructive social forces leading to the modification of behavior towards desirable and worth-while ends.

Round Table 7—Tests and Measurements. Critics of testing programs point out that tests are *not* measurements. Learning is the transformation of the individual, not to be measured by performance in recitations and examinations. The things pupils remember are not all they have learned. Regents examinations are no measure of learning. You may have learned the most important lessons of a lifetime yet be unable to pass a factual test. Objective tests may even hinder progressive teaching. . . . Defenders of tests insist that because tests measure only some phase of learning, there is no reason to neglect their use entirely. Faith is not enough; we are sure of growth only in so far as we can measure it. But the values possible from testing depend almost entirely on the classroom teacher who

alone is in contact with the pupil. Testing is to help teachers understand pupils. . . . New Rochelle reports that it does not bother with intelligence tests but puts its faith in a battery of achievement tests.

Round Table 8—Pupil Accounting and Universal Education. To afford teachers the true picture of the whole integrated pupil during his entire school life and thus enable them to be truly his "guide," an effective system of continuing cumulative records is essential. To this end, all information must be easily available, meaningful, comparable, accurate, objective, show trends of development, be easily interpreted, and filled with opportunities to learn the pupil better. The best type is that developed by the American Council, a cumulative record folder. It is now used in Pennsylvania.

Round Table 9—Improving Methods Through Teacher Growth. The school principal has six major responsibilities towards his faculty: to build up a good morale; to promote the clarification and integration of the duties of the faculty; to cooperate sympathetically in determining, analyzing, and solving individual teaching problems; to stimulate and guide professional growth; to encourage and provide opportunity for experimentation; to preserve the individuality of his teachers. These are intramural responsibilities. Extramural responsibilities include the intelligent cooperation of school officials with directors of professional schools and colleges to the end that training courses may be provided which best meet the real needs and interests of the teachers.

Round Table 11—Activities and Enthusiasms of Boy Scouts. The Boy Scout program is particularly well adapted to be utilized as an extracurricular activity of the junior high school. There is a close parallel between the principles and methods of Scouting and those of the progressive

school. Because of this similarity of purpose and plan, they are well adapted to work together. Scouting is flexible. The beaten trail of Scout requirements leads out into the general field of boy interests at every angle, but troop activities are not confined to the beaten trail. Like hounds in a hunting pack, the boys go off in twos or threes or individually, each according to his inclination. A good troop program provides opportunity for each boy in each patrol to carry on those activities which are most interesting and helpful to him.

Round Table 12—How Can Faculty Meetings Influence Pedagogical Adventures? The faculty meeting is receiving proper recognition as an instrument of creative supervision through which the teachers may find themselves professionally. A socialized faculty is natural in a socialized school. The meetings cut out administrative announcements and tiresome lectures by principals and supervisors. The teachers, working through a committee, plan and organize the program for the term. Demonstration lessons by teachers conspicuously successful with a new method, debates, reports on visits to other schools, serious discussion of real school problems—these and a variety of other topics form the material of the socialized faculty meeting. The teachers have a voice in the administration of the school and in the determination of its policies. No more robots but active members of a profession, each with a sympathetic and intelligent understanding of his work in relation to the whole program which he has helped to form, to improve, to tear down, and build up according to his improving concept of educational purposes and methods—that is the new teacher in a socialized faculty.

Round Table 13—The Contract Method Meets the Challenge. Each student in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls receives a guide sheet in each subject. This

is related in form to the "contracts" used elsewhere, and its operation resembles the Dalton Plan. The guide sheet provides free laboratory time, self-corrective devices, opportunity to work in flexible groups, and final objective tests. It gives to all the three essentials of mental health—a task, a plan, and freedom to carry it out—the opportunity to reach the goal, each in her own time, at her own speed.

Round Table 14—Stimulating Pupil Interests in English Expression. Our preoccupation with silent reading has led us to neglect the appreciations and conditioning powers arising only through tone, inflection, nuance, rhythm, and cadence. They may become effective stimuli through verse speaking, chanting, and the speech choir. Silent reading does not bring out the music in poetry. The speech choir provides an easy, natural, strongly motivated introduction to the communal living of literature within the social groups of the school. From its work the modification of meanings and lines come about as naturally as the alteration of a play in rehearsal. The natural inevitable step is the production of verse and rhythmic prose for the choir by the pupils.

Round Table 15—The School Library. Accumulated evidence shows that the provision of complete school-library service is basic to the success of the modern type of school program. The library serves every function of the school, curricular and extracurricular, from the mathematics classes to the general shop. Books and furniture alone do not make library service. Not less important than these is the intelligent direction by a trained teacher-librarian who knows her stock and knows the customers and their needs. Formal library lessons are antiquated. The student learns the use of library materials through the actual use of these materials in his self-purposed quest for data, facts, knowledge—all of some likely value to him in his study of some

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school subject or personal hobby. The competent librarian will connive with the teacher to get each student the books he wants to read, even if his selections include some titles not recognized as "classics."

Round Table 16—Associational Attitudes. Secure desirable associational attitudes by planning anew the social-science courses. Reorient the objectives; emphasize changes in pupils, not subject matter to be taught. Use a method of investigation and discussion of current problems of school and life. In testing, be concerned with opinion more than information. . . . Another plan is to conceive all school activities as instruments for developing right social attitudes. Attitudes are developed through participation. Skillful planning and administration will assure that right attitudes are concomitant with satisfactory adjustments of each pupil to varied experiences.

Round Table 17—Guidance. The classroom teacher is the keystone of the guidance program, especially when he is a homeroom teacher as well. Only the parent comes into closer contact with the child. All school subjects, all school activities are potentially agencies for guidance. Greater than these is the influence of personality in pupil-teaching contacts. Vocational guidance for a shifting future is much less important than educational guidance—the child's adjustment to his immediate problems in school and out of school. Essentially, all education has guidance or adjustment as its end.

Round Table 18—The Remedial Class. The group-study plan applied to remedial learning infers that remedial learning is a self-active process following the general laws of learning. Self-activity connotes freedom, which is a result of the organization of time, subject matter, pupil personnel, and checks. Such organization is part of the teacher preparation.

Round Table 20—Architectural Adapta-

tions. Every school building is a distinct problem to the conscientious architect, for school programs and methods vary so widely that standard plans are impossible if necessary adaptations to specific uses are to be made. . . . The library may be considered the most important room in the building. . . . There is no justification for Gothic towers and other gingerbread on school buildings. Utility must be in every element. Organic architecture, which means sincere use of materials to produce the maximum utility, rejects such features as elaborate stone columns concealing beneath the stone veneer an H column and a framework of steel. . . . Of the modernistic: Ultimately, development and refinement will bring about something good; at present we may expect to see many atrocities produced by extremists, faddists, and the untrained.

Round Table 23—Music Methods. Tastes, appreciations, ideals, attitudes, and mental perspectives are a better index of one's character than what he has or what he can do. The aim of music education is to develop appreciation of beauty in music. Music participation is the very best appreciation. Singing is one of the best means of gaining and understanding the appreciation of music.

Round Table 24—Practical Aids. Measure mechanical aptitudes, not aptitude. On this depends the effectiveness of practical-arts instruction; on such scientific measurements depend the success of guidance efforts. Interest and ability are not synonymous. Our program will succeed to the extent that it nourishes and strengthens the boy's natural impulse to make things and do things. We must give each student a chance for creative thought and expression through his own experiences. . . . The Junior Mechanics is an organization which curricularizes the extracurricular. It is being conducted experimentally in some junior high schools, particularly in Pennsylvania.

Round Table 26—Business Education. The interest of the students will be promoted if the business-education classes are organized as a business office and given frequent opportunities to participate in activities derived from real business affairs of the school organizations. The content, scope, and method of a course in junior business training should be organized with reference to the home environment of the students concerned. If a child has a part-time wage-earning employment, he has a right to expect the school to help him in his present work as well as in his preparation for adult life.

Round Table 27—Art Methods. Man lives not by bread alone, but nobody wants organized leisure. Group activities are most satisfying and stimulating, provide for emulation and approval. Budding artists are eager to learn new techniques, and we all need to acquire the educated eye—to be able to see relationships and distinctions in form and color. Art advances as more amateurs find pleasure in creation and are better able to enjoy the creations of others.

Round Table 29—Foreign Languages.

It is difficult but necessary to give students agreeable means of acquiring a large vocabulary and reducing the drudgery of constantly referring to dictionaries and word lists. One method which is entertaining and effective is to fix attention on the meaning of the French word by showing its derivation from the Latin. . . . The marionette theater offers possibilities for dramatizing in a foreign language with the least possible time and effort spent on the business of production, allowing the time to be spent on pronunciation and diction and matters directly relevant to learning the language.

Round Table 30—Scientific Thinking. The teacher and the pupil are responsible not only for individual improvement but for social progress. The development of science concepts or ideas must be within the comprehension and interest range of the pupils taught. Enjoyment and interest in science phenomena is fully as important as the direct science knowledge gained. Science is not a province roped off for specialists in laboratories; it is a way of thinking, a collection of attitudes necessary for all who are to be adequately adjusted to this age.

AN ALL-SCHOOL PROJECT IN DRAMATICS

BEN WELLS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Wells, of the University of Michigan High School, explains how 350 pupils coöperated in a project in dramatics. He writes that "this high percentage of student participation brought about a general and justifiable feeling of achievement."*

F. E. L.

IT is one thing for a school to enjoy a play or pageant produced by a class, a homeroom, or a dramatics club, because the small size and the homogeneity of the performing group ensure to all of its members the values to be derived from participation in play production. It is quite another thing, however, for an entire six-year high school, with an enrollment of 350, to formulate and carry through a project in dra-

matics involving the constructive and creative activity of practically every member of the school. Such a project was undertaken by the University High School of Ann Arbor in its Washington Bicentennial observance.

The nature of the project constituted a unifying interest for students of all ages. This year's Washingtonian atmosphere had become so electric that a dramatic discharge

AN ALL-SCHOOL PROJECT IN DRAMATICS

was inevitable. Early in the year the feeling became general that the school's Bicentennial contribution should be more than a perfunctory reënactment of familiar scenes from Washington's career. There was a desire for a tribute of a more creative nature.

At the same time, there was throughout the school a deep interest in those aspects of Washington's character and relations which have only recently been brought to light. This interest owed its impetus to an assembly program which proved to be the most popular one of the year. Dr. Randolph G. Adams, director of the William L. Clements Library of American History in the University of Michigan, presented a new picture of Washington's Yorktown campaign. These revelations of Washington's strategy were the fruit of Dr. Adams's researches in official British correspondence which has recently come into the possession of the Clements Library. Such a revivification of Washington's military genius inspired the students to want to make their interpretation of Washington historically authentic and up-to-date in scholarship.

The committee laying plans for the observance had, then, three purposes: the recreation of scenes from Washington's life which would emphasize his essential character rather than an unreal idealization; the depiction of character traits authenticated by the most recent findings of scholars; and the presentation of these scenes in such a way that a large part of the student body would share in the activity. Accordingly, it was planned that each of the six grades should present one phase of Washington's character development. Owen Wister's *The Seven Ages of Washington* suggested the scheme. Responsibility for the episodes was then divided as follows: Washington, the Boy—Seventh Grade; Washington, the Frontiersman—Eighth Grade; Washington at Home—Ninth Grade; Washington as Commander-in-

Chief—Tenth Grade; Washington, the President—Eleventh Grade; Immortality—Twelfth Grade. These assignments being made, the grades met separately during the homeroom periods and set to work.

Within each grade there was a division of responsibility. One group took the bibliography furnished by the librarian and set about combing it for historical data appropriate for the scene; another group undertook the dramatization of these materials; others made costumes, painted scenes, and collected properties. The casts of the scenes were purposely large so that almost half of the members of each grade appeared on the stage as actors. In the complete production there were six different George Washingtons!

A central committee examined and criticized the manuscripts before they went into rehearsal, but few changes were found necessary. The large measure of independence which characterized the development of the various scenes caused many faculty members to entertain grave apprehensions concerning the success of the complete production. The result, however, was a striking demonstration of the value and efficacy of a coöperative project undertaken by large groups. What had seemed a loose assortment of unrelated elements became a smoothly-running production with unity of dramatic spirit and interpretation.

The opening scene from Washington's boyhood, by the seventh grade, depicted young George's precocious strategy in entrapping his youthful opponents by bombarding them with apples. This was followed by another seventh-grade scene with a different cast. George's high hopes for a nautical career were dashed by his mother, Mrs. Mary Washington, who displayed that stern vigor typical of her true nature rather than the gentle insipidity with which legend has endowed her.

In the eighth-grade scene, Washington, as

a young surveyor, found the Indians making war medicine on the wilderness frontier of Lord Fairfax's estate in Virginia. The tom-tom sounded, the braves grunted ominously, but George's commanding personality and hand-gripping prowess brought pacification and the pipe of peace.

The ninth grade presented a domestic interlude at Mount Vernon between Washington's marriage and his martial activities. His wise husbandry, parental tenderness, and fox-hunting proclivities were shown. The scene was enriched with a spiritual by the kindly-treated slaves of the estate, and it concluded with a polka in which the father joined with as much zest as the children.

The difficulties and misgivings that beset the General in the dark winters of 1778 and 1779 were presented by the tenth grade. At his headquarters he gave encouragement to Lafayette, Hamilton, Von Steuben, and his soldiers. But when he was alone there appeared before him the phantoms of Cold, Hunger, Disease, Jealousy, and Defeat. Only when he realized his high mission were these wraiths banished by the spirit of Self-Confidence.

It was as a shrewd and capable administrator that the President appeared in the study of his Philadelphia residence in the eleventh-grade scene. He gave sound commercial counsel to a Philadelphia merchant who sought his advice. He reconciled, for the time, the differences between Hamilton and Jefferson. Being a *shrewd* administrator, he gave Mistress Martha Washington free rein in domestic management. And, being a man of the world, he turned from the cares of public office to examine a spirited horse presented to him by a Penn-

sylvania Dutchman who had served under him in the war.

Finally, Washington's enshrinement in the hearts of every generation of his countrymen was shown in pantomimic form by the twelfth grade. Passing before the tomb at Mount Vernon were groups representative of 1812, 1861, 1898, 1917, and 1932. There was a background of incidental music. During all changes of scene throughout the presentation the school orchestra played selections in the spirit of the time.

All faculty members were involved, largely in advisory capacities. There was a central faculty committee to coördinate the work of the various groups and subcommittees. The teacher of dramatics assisted with rehearsals whenever possible. Otherwise, the work of organization and production was in the hands of students. Each grade had a properties committee, a costume committee, and a dramatics committee. The orchestra and the stage crew drew upon all grades.

It was felt that two outstanding values were derived from this Bicentennial observance. The first was the capability of self-direction demonstrated by the students in the initiation, the development, and the successful completion of the project. The second was the fine coöperative spirit shown in every phase of the work. It was not a case of a few leaders assuming all of the burdens and providing a spectacle for the rest of the school. Instead, the whole school pooled its talents and efforts in paying a worthy tribute to an inspiring historical figure. This high percentage of student participation brought about a general and justifiable feeling of achievement.

JOHNNIE SCHOLAR OR TEST-TEACH-ITIS

*Johnnie Scholar entered high school
Of the most progressive trend;
Standard testing to the limit
Told the pathways he must wend.*

*Here they gave him Terman, Thorndike,
Castle, Chapman, Charters, Chou,
Laidlaw, Langlie, Lanz, Lerrigo,
Renfrow, Reymert, Ragatz, Ruch.*

*Symonds, Sanford, Schorling, Sargent,
Blaisdell, Barrows, Bowman, Bell,
Perkins, Pressey, Powers, Perry,
Otis, Oswald, Oakes, Odell.*

*Tests of intellect and Latin,
Tests of hand skill and suggestion,
Tests of attitude and stature,
Tests of music and digestion.*

*Tests prognostic, diagnostic
In percentile curves refined
Gave the interquartile ranges
Where his joys and griefs combined.*

*Real and valid were the findings
For they tried them on the masses,
Thus they found his mean locations
And the sigma of his classes.*

*They have found beyond what limits
Aptitude and learning vanish.
They have figured the regression
Of his spleen upon his Spanish.*

*They have found achievement ratios
For each subject he shall meet,
And they know the correlation
Between physics and flat feet.*

*A.R., I.R., P.E., S.E.,
A.Q., E.Q., and I.Q.
M.A., E.A., C.A., V.A.
Are recorded safe and true.*

*Now by testing, prying, sampling,
Analytic hearts are glad,
So perchance there'll be a moment
Left to try to teach the lad.*

JOHN BRETNALL

A LATIN DOGGEREL

*From the lips of our teachers of Latin,
In wisdom repeated the story
That only through pathways of English,
Is the highway to classical glory.*

*The heights of attainment in Latin
No student ever can reach
Until he has mastered in English
The technique of all parts of speech.*

*We must drill in the grammar of English
Creating a firm situation
Where the student may build up his Latin
As a house rests upon its foundation.*

*Like warp upon woof, through our language
Interwoven in manner astute,
We find Latin all threaded through English
In prefix and suffix and root.*

*Should we seek in the process of learning
To master the forms of our tongue,*

*We must master the syntax of Latin
And drill its cold forms to the young.*

*From the lips of our classical teachers
Arises this cry to a clamor,
None may know technique in English
Save in Latin a mastery of grammar.*

*Shall we build up the house on its footings
Or on the house rear the foundation?
Come, teachers of classical learning,
We are seeking a language relation.*

*Shall Latin be studied for the English
Or the English be studied for the Latin?
Does the satin depend on the silkworm
Or the silkworm depend on the satin?*

*Is it Latin for English or English for Latin?
We have queried our brains to dismay,
Might wisdom bid study the usage
It has in the speech of today.*

JOHN BRETNALL

BOOK NOTES

MILDRED BATCHELDER

In the first part of one of last year's widely read biographies, *The Education of a Princess*, by Grand Duchess Marie, there appears the Romanov genealogy. There among the members of the imperial family is the Grand Duke Alexander, the cousin and intimate friend of the late czar. This year finds his memoirs among the books which are receiving attention. *Once a Grand Duke* studies the picture of twentieth-century Russia and indicates the influence of many important persons in the family upon the scene. Alexander II, Alexander III, and Czar Nicholas are vividly portrayed. Nicholas, or Nicky as he is called throughout the book, appears a most ineffectual person, completely untrained for his high post, a man who followed and had no conception of real leadership, a puppet in the hands of some of the grand dukes who were his ministers, and of his wife. It is an understanding and sympathetic view of the last czar and of many other members of the imperial family but the evaluations are made from a detached yet entirely loyal point of view. Alexander often disapproved of the policy of the czar and frankly discussed matters with him. These conferences were frequently satisfactory at the time but might have their effect removed and decisions reversed by a later conference with some other person.

Alexander and his brothers spent their boyhood at their home in the Caucasus and perhaps it was the education and experience away from the large cities of the country which gave this grand duke the ability to see his country in perspective. There are some prejudices and personal bias but these are overbalanced by an effort to be critical and fair in looking over the years of turmoil.

Another book of personal memories gives a different angle of the Russian story from 1914 until the present time. Madam Ponafidine tells of the tragic experiences which

came to her family during the Bolshevik Revolution. *Russia—My Home* begins with the declaration of war and the call for men and horses from the estates. Madam Ponafidine, the daughter of a missionary to Persia, had been married in 1885 to Peter Ponafidine, Russian consul general in Tabriz. Two of their sons enlisted in the army immediately, the third was at the Lyceum in St. Petersburg. Madam Ponafidine had the responsibility of running the large estate with insufficient help, largely prisoners of war, and caring for her husband who was totally blind and was not well. Nurse's training received years before in America made it possible for her to help when there was illness in any of the peasant homes. This service endeared her to these people and in the following years meant that some privileges were permitted to the Ponafidines. The instability and ever-present uncertainty as to the policies of local governing bodies kept the family in constant fear.

Gradually all their possessions were taken away and the estate was used as a school. Inefficient people were put in charge and the lands and crops were ruined by neglect. After Mr. Ponafidine's death his wife and two sons lived for a time in one room in the city. Then came many changes and exasperating efforts to get in contact with the American relief organization established in Moscow. The final escape from the country reads like an exaggerated fictitious narrative. The terrors, the confusion, the waste of life and materials are apparent in each of these books.

The books about Russia are of all sorts: histories, novels, economic treatises, and plays, but none are more readable than the personal memoirs.

The following books are selected from *The Booklist* which is published monthly by the American Library Association.

BOOK NOTES

Nonsuch: Land of Water, by WILLIAM BEEBE. New York: Brewer, Warren and Putnam, 1932, 259 pages, 55 illustrations, \$3.50.

Mr. Beebe has the ability to invest every phase of volcano, sea, fish, bird, tree, or snail with an interest and a meaning related to the entire universe, and all in the most brilliant and distinguished prose. He spent the last three years on a tiny Bermuda island called Nonsuch, examining the land and the sea and their inhabitants. To accompany him on this adventure as recounted here is a thrilling experience. Fine illustrations from photographs, drawings, or paintings, and pictorial end papers. This is the first of four books dealing with life in the waters about Nonsuch.

Black Elk Speaks; Being the Life Story of a Holy Man of the Ogalala Sioux as Told to John G. Neihardt (Flaming Rainbow), by BLACK ELK, OGALALA INDIAN. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1932, 280 pages, illustrated, \$3.75.

An old Sioux, medicine man and seer of visions, telling his memories to a white man, follows the sad course of his people's defeat and degradation through the last fifty years. He describes several battles, with details of revolting cruelty by both sides, tells of his visions and his healing powers, and relates incidents of his trip to Europe with Buffalo Bill. The illustrations are Indian drawings in black and white and color by his friend Standing Bear.

Freshwater; a History and a Narrative of the Great Lakes, by GEORGE A. CUTHBERTSON. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 315 pages, illustrated, \$7.50.

The author's intention is to show the evolution of types of ships used on the Great Lakes and he follows it from the Indian canoe and La Salle's sailing vessels to the great cargo and passenger steamers of today. Naval history and lake commerce are an integral part of the story and the naval engagements of the War of 1812 and the growth of the great shipping companies are given in some detail. The author is a Canadian marine artist and the majority of the thirty drawings and nine color plates are from his own work. Appendixes give statistics, lists of vessels, and chronologies. Bound in light linen-colored cloth.

The United States and the League of Nations, by DENNA FRANK FLEMING. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1932, 559 pages, illustrated, \$5.00.

The author was legal adviser to Woodrow Wilson and shared his views and he states that while he "makes no claim to that total objectivity of interpretation which is the supposed goal of all historical writers, he has made an earnest effort to present the available facts in proper sequence and to state both sides of the story. Attempt has been made throughout to hold to the main issues."¹ The rise of the League idea, the steps in the controversy over the United States' membership, and the part taken by the different leaders are told in straight historical narrative, reinforced with copious quotations from reports, newspapers, government documents, and footnote references. The Covenant of the League and a list of members are given in an appendix.

Expression in America, by LUDWIG LEWISOHN. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1932, 624 pages, \$4.00.

An interpretation of American literature from this critic, familiar with literatures of other countries, is, as might be expected, original and challenging. From colonial days down to the present, he searches for the truly creative writers whose work revealed the poet's gift of expressing truth and beauty. Of particular interest are the chapters on the new criticism and on living authors. "The true history of literature in America is the history of those poets and thinkers who first in mere theory, later in both theory and practice, denied the Puritan division of experience from expression, broke the moulds of the artificer, and brought their countrymen: first, freedom of perception and of thought; next, flexibility of conduct in pursuit of each man's idea of the good life. The story of our literature is the story of successive moral revolutions, nor has the time for severe and serene masterpieces come to us yet."²

The Good Fairy, a New Play, by FERENC MOLNAR; translated and adapted by JANE HINTON. New York: Ray Long and Richard R. Smith, 1932, 178 pages, \$2.00.

A clever, sophisticated comedy is developed from the situation which arises at a clandestine dinner engagement between a romantic young

¹ Preface.

² Introduction.

JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

cinema usher and a wealthy man. The girl, thinking to increase the man's respect for her, pretends to be the wife of a lawyer. Her admirer, whose business needs a legal adviser, asks the husband's name and the distracted girl snatches a name at random from the telephone directory. Later she dreamily thinks of herself as a "good fairy," bringing a prosperous business to the unknown man whose name she has appropriated. Amusing and unexpected results follow. Written with a light touch.

The Eagle's Gift, Alaska Eskimo Tales, by KNUD RASMUSSEN; translated and illustrated by ISOBEL HUTCHINSON. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1932, 235 pages, illustrated, \$2.50.

These folk tales, collected by the author during his expedition across Arctic America (1921-1924)

are representative of the thought of the primitive Eskimo before the advent of the white trader. The tales, which vary in length, are told with simplicity and a thorough appreciation of the subject, its source and form. Durable and attractive format and interesting drawings.

The Swope Plan, Details, Criticisms, Analysis, by GERARD SWOPE; edited by J. G. FREDERICK. New York: Business Bourse, 1931, 221 pages, \$3.50.

The president of the General Electric Company suggests economic stabilization through trade-association leadership, under government supervision, which would require repeal or revision of our present anti-trust laws. Criticisms of the plan by Stuart Chase, Walter Lippmann, Norman Thomas, Owen D. Young, and others are included.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Principles of Secondary Education, by PHILIP W. L. COX and FORREST E. LONG. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932, viii+620 pages.

Alexander Inglis's monumental treatise on secondary education appeared in 1918. At intervals since that date additional books dealing with the subject have appeared. The publication of three separate volumes in this field within the last ninety days attests the growing concern regarding the issues involved in the development of a democratic secondary school.

Both in its plan and its point of view *Principles of Secondary Education* by Cox and Long differs very greatly from the conventional treatments of this subject. The book consists of twenty-five divisions, each of which is organized around a positively stated "principle" which is then explained, amplified, and applied throughout that division.

Part I consists of three divisions dealing with the institutional life of the high school. According to the authors, the American secondary school is a consciously controlled environment—common, free, tax-supported, nonsectarian, and State-controlled—open to all children of early and middle adolescence. They describe the process of social evolution by which this institution has been produced and clearly show that in a changing civilization the institution itself must necessarily be in a process of transition. In the third division of Part I a strong case is made for the thesis, "The high school as a social institution must function for social ends." "Only by serving social ends," insist the authors, "may the secondary school hope to gain and hold the confidence of all the people."

In Part II the authors present a five-division discussion of the pupil. They insist that if high-school procedures are to be maximally effective these procedures must be based upon the interplay of the biological, social, and emotional characteristics of adolescent youths; they must conform to the laws of learning; they must be adapted to the varying levels and types of pupil intelligence and aptitudes; they must afford specific practice in new situations, and, finally, they must secure the self-respect, happiness, and frequent success of the pupils.

Part III deals with the curriculum and student activities. The authors do not hesitate to depart radically from the traditional conception of the curriculum. They hold that the secondary-school curriculum should comprise all activities and experiences fostered by the school which prepare children of middle and early adolescence for participation in social life and which have for every

individual the maximum self-realization consonant with the welfare of the group. Consistent with this position the authors emphasize the importance of utilizing not only allied activities but also institutions which are entirely apart from the school itself. They hold that extraclass learnings are ends in themselves; that they do not exist for the sake of school virtues; and that they should, therefore, be evaluated in terms of the broad aims of education.

Part IV consists of a six-division discussion of changing conceptions of secondary education. The new conception here proposed involves not only the functions and aims of the high school but its relation to the public and certain other related problems. In the last analysis, education is here defined as "not something to be got, labelled, and certified; it is, therefore, not even the knowledges and skills which might imply the attainment of social objectives; it is rather the stimulation of the desire to learn, the readiness to secure one's own answers to his questions and the habit of success."

Each division of the book closes with a series of carefully formulated learning exercises which will challenge the attention of the student and add greatly to the value of the book as a text for college courses in this field. The division bibliographies are fairly extensive. Good judgment has been used in their selection.

The book is distinctly liberal in tone. In the opinion of the reviewer it is one of the really outstanding books in the field it treats. It is well adapted for use as a text in professional courses. It could very profitably be used as a basis for faculty meetings and professional study by secondary-school staffs. It clearly deserves a place in the professional library of every high-school principal who is concerned about the truly significant aspects of his position.

J. R.

Sans Famille, by HECTOR MALOT; edited, with preface, biographical note, geographical note, exercises, notes, and vocabulary, by WALTER H. STORER. New York: American Book Company, 1931, xiv+301 pages.

This new edition of *Sans Famille* is particularly justified by (1) improvement in condensation of the original text; (2) practicability of the idiom lists, exercises, and other classroom aids; and (3) inclusion of more complete geographical data than other editions have carried.

The reduction of Malot's story of nine hundred standard pages to one hundred and sixty-four pages of smaller size, accomplished without im-

pairment of the plot, is an achievement worthy of commendation. In the opinion of the reviewer, this arrangement, considered from the standpoint of pupil motivation, is a noteworthy improvement over other American editions for school use, and even over the original text as written by Malot.

JOHN G. WINTER

Elements of English Composition, by STELLA S. CENTER and ETHEL E. HOLMES. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1930, xx + 526 pages.

Targets for English Practice, by STELLA S. CENTER and ETHEL E. HOLMES. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1932, iv + 229 pages, \$.50.

The second of these books is a perforated leaf book of exercises designed to habituate the theoretical matters set forth in *Elements of English Composition*. The authors show their understanding of methods of study that appeal to adolescents and utilize these methods in sound educational procedure. The practice book has the further merit of promoting self-criticism by the student.

Among the excellent characteristics of these books, one notices especially the clever choice and appropriate use of examples and other illustrative material. Certainly these books are attractive, usable, and sound.

L. W. B.

Western Prose and Poetry, edited by RUFUS A. COLEMAN. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1932, xxi + 502 pages, \$1.40.

Here is a collection of extracts from the works of western writers that should occupy a significant place in the study of American Literature. The selections are classified according to theme, and the themes are as varied as the phases of western life from Lewis and Clark to the oil booms. The Indian, the homesteader, the explorer, the stagecoach driver, the soldier, the air-mail pilot, and many other striking figures appear in the pages. For the most part the selections are characterized by vigor of style and episode. This reviewer can certify to the appeal that the book makes to the adolescent boy.

A. D. W.

Modern Typewriting for High Schools and Colleges, by ROY L. MCPHERSON. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1931, 191 pages, \$1.60.

This text is divided into 150 daily lessons. The instructions for each lesson are explicit and are significant factors in developing the student's technique and typewriting ability.

Particular attention has been devoted to making the text adaptable to the particular needs of the individual student, yet the lessons are in orderly succession and well planned for classwork.

The author has stressed the importance of right mental attitude and right habits of thinking. He has made careful provision of the formation of correct habits of technique throughout the text.

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An effort is made to build up a writing vocabulary by exercises based on the 500 most commonly used words. The purpose of each lesson is definitely stated and the procedure clearly set forth. The text is outstanding in its simplicity, directness, arrangement, and completeness.

WERT E. MOORE

Secondary Education in the United States, by WILLIAM A. SMITH. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xvi + 429 pages, \$2.50.

One of the major cultural movements of modern times is the development of a democratic system of public secondary education in the United States. More than anything else this movement is the expression of the genius and the aspirations of a new world order, based upon the recognition of the dignity and worth of every man.

Actuated by the conviction that the professional workers in the schools should be much more than teachers of subject matter and routine administrators, Professor Smith has undertaken to characterize and interpret the contemporary functioning of the American secondary-school system, and to trace its rise and development. The major emphasis is placed upon changing conceptions and practices in curriculum-making and teaching.

As a background for the study of current conditions, the opening chapters are devoted to the historical background in America and to the outstanding characteristics of secondary schools in other countries. These are followed by chapters on the scope and functions of secondary education, the characteristics and needs of secondary-school pupils, various aspects of the curriculum, including the extracurriculum, and a chapter on changing conceptions and practices of teaching.

The reader finds himself left with a conception of the significant progress in the direction of

BOOK REVIEWS

saner, more wholesome conditions in the conduct of the schools, in the relations between pupils and teachers, and in the degree to which pupils are afforded opportunity for helpful guidance in selecting and carrying out their own worthy purposes. For the benefit of readers who wish to carry their investigations further, there are extensive bibliographies.

A. D. W.

Lives in the Making, by HENRY NEUMANN. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1932, 370 pages, \$2.25.

Another real contribution to the important field of character education has come from the pen of Dr. Neumann. It is *Lives in the Making*. The subtitle, "Aims and Ways of Character Education," states rather concisely the purpose of this volume. The author gives us a well-balanced discussion of the place and function of the home, community, and the school in a program of character building. This treatment is well knit together by a clear recognition of pertinent psychological factors. The outstanding characteristic of Dr. Neumann's treatment is his emphasis on the total all-round development of the individual child. It is futile to be concerned about any one aspect of the child's growth to even a slight neglect of all other phases of his total personality makeup.

That character formation is primarily a process of socialization permeates the entire discussion. The value of experience in such academic fields as literature, social studies, the natural sciences, and mathematics is again emphasized. On the other hand, a distinctly prominent place in character building is given over to "learning by doing." In his chapter, under this title, the author appropriately develops the extreme importance and value of such school life activities as social services, athletics, dramatics, the school newspaper, pupil participation in school government, clubs, and the like. A distinctly sane treatment is given covering so-called direct moral instruction. Through the development of carefully thought out, and somewhat subtle, techniques there develops a real place for direct moral instruction in the hands of the skillful teacher.

Teachers, students, and school administrators vitally concerned with the problem of character building will find in this volume a distinct contribution to this important aspect of general education.

F. C. BORGESON

Educational Psychology, by WILLIAM CLARK TROW. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931, xv+504 pages, \$2.80.

This book is not an elementary text; it assumes that the students who use it already have considerable acquaintance with the elements of psychology. Nevertheless, it covers much of the subject matter usually assigned to elementary psychology, such as animal learning and heredity, "because of evidence as to the amount that it is possible to forget after the final examination of any course, and because of the hope that a different point of view will furnish added significance."

The ten chapters dealing respectively with motivation, emotion, adjustment, intelligence, instruments of measurement, sensori-motor learning and manual skill, associative learning and transfer, rational learning and the scientific method, social learning and character education, and growth are competently handled. The organization of the book is comprehensive, natural, and clear.

Trow has sought to present clearly and fairly the current psychological orthodoxes and heresies without attempting to reconcile their differences. "If psychologists delight in controversy, why should it be denied to their students?" By means of forty-seven tables and sixty-two figures, the author furnishes data enough for the support of students who seek to analyze and interpret them.

Such encouragement of diversity of judgments is decidedly a step in the right direction. Students must be encouraged to cogitate and express the results of their reflections if they are to "learn" psychology as a way of life. Our emphasis should be less on present information and more on the questions in the field of human behavior which students themselves may be encouraged to have. Such questions they may seek to answer in the years to come. Under such a condition it may be found that they will not forget so much.

P. W. L. C.

Society and Education, by JOHN A. KINNEMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xii+558 pages, \$2.00.

Recognizing the importance of a fuller understanding, on the part of teachers, of the relationships that exist between organized society and the practice of the teaching craft, Professor Kinneman offers a study of education from the point of view of the sociologist. In the opening chapters he discusses the limits of sociology and the relation of sociology to education. This portion of the text is included for the benefit of readers who have not studied sociology previously.

The remaining chapters deal with six main themes: (1) Group Life in a Democracy, (2) Control of the Environments, (3) Transmitting the

Experiences of the Race, (4) Knowing and Appreciating Social Groups, (5) Social Institutions, and (6) Wise Use of Leisure Time.

In his development of these themes it is the author's purpose to help teachers to become more critical of the materials the schools have been teaching and more aware of the necessity of adapting curricular materials to social organization and social change. Most readers will find themselves led a step beyond analysis merely of the practices of the schools and will be stimulated to analyze and perhaps to challenge much that now passes as contemporary civilization.

Professor Kinneman believes that the teacher above all others needs to experience the benefits of a liberalizing and socializing education. His text seems to this reader to be a distinct contribution to the attainment of this end.

A. D. W.

Careers in the Making, edited by IONA M. R. LOGIE. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931, xvii+393 pages, \$1.20.

The reading of biography has always been one of the regularly required activities of English classes in high school. Formerly pupils read the lives of long dead great men such as Benjamin Franklin and Samuel Johnson. More recently time has been found for the study of such twentieth-century Americans as Jacob Riis and Theodore Roosevelt. Still more recently there has developed the outburst of popular interest in the biographies of outstanding contemporaries that has made best sellers of the works of Lytton Strachey, André Maurois, and many other writers.

The author of *Careers in the Making* has given us a collection of extracts from the biographies of twenty Americans of our century. Among the twenty there is a wide variety of vocation; a social worker, an inventor, a merchant, an artist, a teacher, a physician, an industrial engineer, and representatives of other fields of activity are represented. In each case the portion of the biography selected deals with the beginnings of the career in question, and offers a vivid portrayal of the motives that prompted these beginnings.

The book appears to hold out the possibility of an effective correlation between vocational guidance and the study of English. Such readings as it includes should help the high-school pupil to understand himself through acquaintance with the experiences of well-known men and women in that period of their lives when they were choosing, preparing for, entering upon, and progressing in a congenial life work.

Such material as this book contains should, if effectively dealt with, provide valuable aid in the guidance process.

A. D. W.

Objective Tests in American Democracy, by VERL A. TEETER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1932, 43 pages, \$.35.

This test was made to accompany the authors workbook in *American Democracy*. It is divided into three parts: government, economics, and social problems. Each part consists of several hundred true-false, best answer, matching, and completion exercises which serve as an objective measuring scale for determining how well the student has mastered the course in American democracy. The arrangement of this test is very unique and the statements are simple and clear and should prove very helpful to high-school teachers.

ESTHER LARSON

How to Study a Demonstration Lesson; a manual and notebook for classroom observation, by EDWIN H. REEDER and ROLLO G. REYNOLDS. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, \$.60.

A very useful guide for both inexperienced as well as experienced teachers has been prepared by the authors for use in observing classroom procedures. The manual consists of two parts: first, a discussion and illustration of certain typical classroom situations; and second, forms for recording and reporting classroom activities observed.

The introductory discussion treats of the more obvious conditions to be noted by the observer, as well as the more subtle and frequently overlooked situations that are very likely to be more significant to the actual teaching-learning situation at hand. After outlining approaches to the techniques for observing the classroom situation, discipline, questioning, and whether or not the emphasis is on recall or reflection, the authors stress the extreme importance of moving on to a discovery of the underlying principle or principles of teaching involved.

The manual is particularly useful for situations of observation in which supervisors of observation are not in a position of controlling the classroom procedure. A very desirable form has been developed which might be the basis of reporting regular or demonstration lessons in any situation. The manual is thus to be commended for its simplicity, directness, and useability for inexperienced as well as experienced teachers.

F. C. BORGESON

BOOK REVIEWS

Research in Business Education, by BENJAMIN R. HAYNES and JESSIE GRAHAM. Los Angeles: C. C. Crawford, 1932, 232 pages, \$2.00.

This volume deals with the present status, the fertile fields, the basic principles, and the applicable types of research in business education, followed by abstracts of theses and an adequate bibliography. The treatment is both clear and comprehensive. There are included not only the studies related to the conventional business subjects at secondary levels, but also teacher training and adult education.

The abstracts of theses should prove of much value to students of secondary education. It may, however, be regretted that the studies cited are not more critically evaluated. The authors have overlooked a very real opportunity to guide further researchers in business education by explaining not only the positive contribution of former studies but their shortcomings. Only so, are research methods and contributions likely to be improved.

The authors of this volume are on firm ground when they insist that the practical uses made of the findings of researchers are the test whether or not educational research is worth while. This valuable book might have been even more helpful had it given some examples of the beneficial influence of researches that have been made.

P. W. L. C.

Principles of Economics, by ARTHUR L. FAUBEL. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1931, 522 pages, \$1.60.

This is a new and revised edition of the author's earlier book, *Principles of Economics*. In the new book a great deal of new material has been added.

The new material includes six new chapters dealing with marketing, agriculture, banking, tariff, labor and wages, and economic changes. Much of the material has been revised and brought up-to-date. The author stresses especially the relation between the business man and other economic institutions.

Many new questions and problems and some of the examination questions from the New York State Regents have been included in the new text. All of this material makes the book quite up-to-date and highly satisfactory as a high-school text. The text also includes many new charts, diagrams, and illustrations which enliven the text. The material is sufficiently flexible for use either as a half-year or full-year course in high-school economics.

JOHN N. ANDREWS

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55 Fifth Avenue NEW YORK, N.Y.

George Washington, by THORA THORSMARK. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1931, 293 pages, \$.80.

Among the literature which the bicentennial of the birth of George Washington has brought forth, this account of the life of the father of his country stands out because of a satisfying authenticity, combined with a sympathetic treatment which is a welcome relief from the offerings of certain dirt-eating biographers of this age. The genealogy of the hero and the course of his life from birth to death are traced in an interesting manner. The account is replete with quotations from contemporary letters and other source material. The many sides of the man's nature are brought out to make a picture which pleases because of its completeness.

Along the narrative thread of this life, the related bits of the American struggle for independence are strung in such a way as to impart to that campaign and that period a reality and a continuity not to be realized in any other way. Intrigue, national poverty, and other hope-killing factors in the struggle are vividly portrayed.

It is a book which should be read rather than studied. An adult can read the whole book with pleasure in an evening. An eighth-grade pupil should probably not attempt to read it at all. The vocabulary and style, particularly the ponderous diction of the quotations from material of the colonial period, make the book unsuited to junior-high-school purposes. The high-school library should contain a number of copies as supplementary reading for junior and senior classes in American history, American social problems, and American literature.

H. H. R.

BOOKS RECEIVED

I Find My Vocation, by HARRY D. KITEON, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

The Case Method of Instruction, by CECIL E. FRASER, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Pyramids Illustrated, by MATHIAS H. MACHERY and JOHN N. RICHARDS, New York: A. S. Barnes and Company.

Tap Dances, by ANNE SCHLEY DUGGAN, New York: A. S. Barnes and Company.

Tennis Organized, by DOROTHY D. RANDLE and MARJORIE HILLAS, New York: A. S. Barnes and Company.

The Story of Uncle Sam's Money, by WALTER O. WOODS, New York: Gregg Publishing Company.

Business Letters, by RALPH L. JOHNS, New York: Gregg Publishing Company.

BOOK REVIEWS

Standards for High School Teaching, by CHARLES E. REEVES, New York: D. Appleton and Company.

Work Book in High School Observation and Practice Teaching, by CHARLES E. REEVES, New York: D. Appleton and Company.

Hernani, by VICTOR HUGO, New York: American Book Company.

New Business English, by G. B. HOTCHKISS and C. A. DREW, New York: American Book Company.

Workbook for First Year Latin, by L. M. LAWRENCE and N. F. RAYNOR, New York: American Book Company.

Sixth Book of Songs, by ROBERT FORESMAN, New York: American Book Company.

First Lessons in Business Training, by C. W. HAMILTON and J. F. GALLAGHER, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Survey Field Book for the Analysis of a High School Building, by N. L. ENGELHARDT, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The Acceptable Uses of Achievement Tests, by PAUL R. MORT and ARTHUR I. GATES, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

We Create a History Room, by MARGARET T. GIBBS, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

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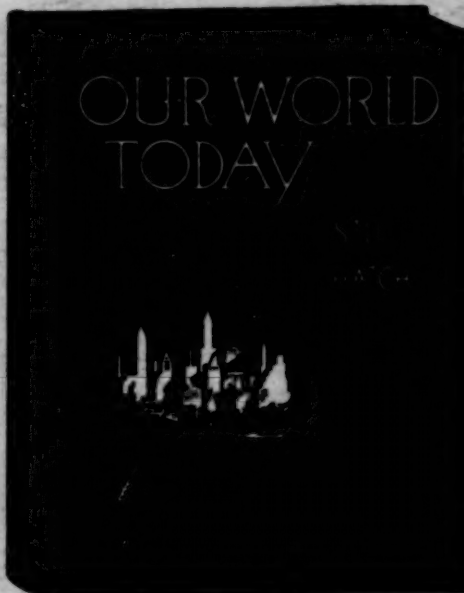
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